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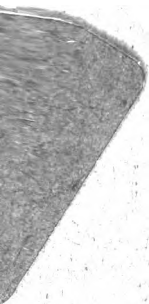
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A pictorial history of ancient Rome

Samuel Griswold Goodrich



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HISTORY OF

ANCIENT ROME



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A
PICTORIAL HISTORY
OF
ANCIENT ROME.



WITH SKETCHES OF THE
HISTORY OF MODERN ITALY.

BY S. G. GOODRICH,

AUTHOR OF PETER RABBIT'S TALES.

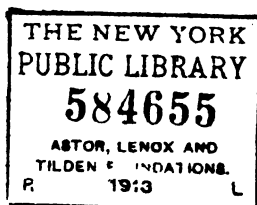
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P R E F A C E



Constantine and the Sign.

THIS work being the last of the series of *Pictorial Histories for Schools and Families*, it may be proper to state the leading views which have guided the writer in their preparation.

In a work of this nature, it is obvious that simplicity of style and perspicuity of arrangement, are not merely desirable, but essential. Of course, the author has attempted to secure these ends. To render the works especially available in education, the subjects are presented in the form of short chapters, each chapter, as far as possible, presenting some distinct subject or subjects, likely to arrest the attention of the reader, and strongly to impress his memory. The matter is further divided into verses; and questions on these are given to aid the teacher in his examination of the pupils. The writer would, however, suggest that in many cases the teacher will find it best to vary these questions so as to suit the particular capacity or taste and character of the pupil.

The author has endeavored to steer between difficulties which always beset historical compends. If they present a full and complete chronological outline, they are apt to be dry, repulsive and uninteresting to the beginner in history. In such case his interest is not excited; nothing being presented upon which his imagination lays strong hold, he learns little, and remembers less. On the other hand, without a distinct chronological outline, history is a maze, by which the reader is more likely to be bewildered than enlightened.

To avoid such difficulties, the writer has adopted this plan; viz., to select the great points of history, and present them in clear, distinct chronological order; and then make these leading points interesting by descriptive details, anecdotes and incidents.

It has been said that *Chronology and Geography are the two Eyes of History*. The former tells *when* events happened, the latter tells *where* they happened. As the former has received careful attention in these works, the latter has not been neglected. In all cases, the history of a country is preceded by geographical descriptions, and maps have been introduced when they were required.

As great care has been taken to select from the endless mass of details presented by the histories of the several countries treated of in this series, in order to give what is at once most important, instructive and amusing, so has it been the special design of the writer to inculcate just views of the several characters which rise before the reader in the great drama of life. History, written in the spirit of the present age, must be very different from that writ-

ten in the spirit of the classic age "Conquer by this sign," was the inscription upon the banner of the cross presented to the visica of Constantine. This may be regarded as a toreshadowing of what has since come to pass. *Conquer by the truth*, is now the dictate of human policy as well as that of divine revelation.

In earlier days, power lay in the sword, and war was the game of the master spirits of mankind. Success in war was glory; displays of physical strength and brute courage were celebrated by the poet, orator, and historian, and were rewarded, not only by fame on earth, but, according to the notions of the age, by high places in heaven. The writings of the Greeks and Romans were imbued with these views, and imparted their spirit to the histories of later times. It has been the special care of the rulers in Europe, down to our own day, to cherish and perpetuate these views. Modern monarchies, like all monarchies, have been built up by wars; the sword is their architect; military heroes are the instruments of kings. War must therefore be made the path to wealth, fame and glory. Historians, as teachers of the people, bound to bring them up in the support of monarchical institutions, must do their part. Thus it is, that the exploits of British, French, and Russian military heroes are spoken of in the pages of the modern historian very much in the language of the pagan authors of antiquity, when speaking of Alexander and Cæsar.

Writing in a country where unnecessary war is held to be wrong; where right furnishes the only rule of might; where truth is acknowledged as superior to the sword, the author has of course viewed the characters and transactions of former times, in a light somewhat different from that ordinarily thrown over historical treatises. He has sought, indeed, to present them in their true colors; and while making due allowance for the darkness of other times, has endeavored not to permit that darkness to become habitual in the mind of the reader, and disqualify him to judge of things as they must appear in the sight of human reason, enlightened by the spirit of Christianity.

The author may add, that in one other respect he has deviated from the ordinary track; he has not confined his details to the intrigues of politicians, the achievements of kings, the rise and fall of empires — the mere skeletons of history. He has, indeed, given these, so far as was necessary; but he has been careful to present the movements of society; to let the reader look in upon the masses; to study their feelings, their opinions, their modes of life, their sufferings, their enjoyments. It is hoped, therefore, that these works will be found not merely attractive, but useful and instructive, inasmuch as they will enable the reader, by studying mankind, to study himself; and by learning the course of Providence in respect to the past, to judge of it in regard to the future.



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INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER I.

Description of Italy.

1. ITALY, which was the seat and centre of the most powerful empire of antiquity, is a large peninsula on the northern side of the Mediterranean, having the Adriatic Sea on the east and the Tyrrhene or Tuscan Sea on the west. It is bounded on the north by the lofty mountain chain of the Alps, and is traversed through its whole length by the Apennines.

2. The surface of the country is very diversified. The southern part is mountainous. In the north is a great plain extending in an unbroken level from the Alps and Apennines to the Adriatic, and watered by the Po and its tributaries. This is the most fertile plain in Europe.

3. The soil of Italy is fruitful, producing plentiful crops of grain, fruits, wine and oil. The amenity of its climate, and its picturesque scenery, render it one of the most delightful regions in the world.

4. The beautiful and fertile island of Sicily, with its lofty volcanic mountain, *Ætna*, lies at the southern extremity of Italy, and is separated from it only by a narrow channel. According to tradition, the island and continent were once united, but some great convulsion of

CHAP. I. — 1. How is Italy bounded? 2. Describe the face of the country. 3. The soil and climate. 4. Describe Sicily. What does Ovid say of it? 5. What were the ancient names of Italy?

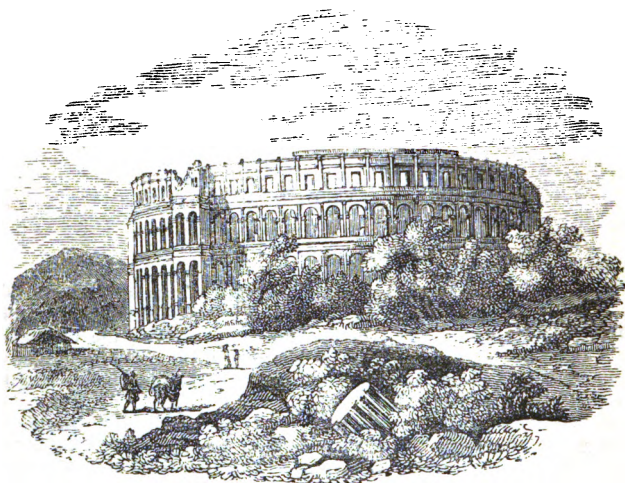
nature rent them asunder. Ovid, in his *Metamorphoses*, alludes to this belief:

So Zancle* to the Italian earth was tied,
And men once walked where ships at anchor ride,
Till Neptune overlooked the narrow way,
And in disdain poured in the conquering sea.

5. Italy was called *Hesperia* by the Greeks, on account of its lying *westward* of Greece. In very remote ages it was also known by the names of *Saturnia*, *Ausonia* and *Cenotria*. The designation of Italy was not generally adopted till about the commencement of the Christian era.

CHAPTER II.

Divisions of Modern and Ancient Italy.



Ancient Roman Ruin

1. ITALY—excluding Venice, which is governed by an Austrian viceroy—consists of the Kingdom of Italy, Papal Dominions, and San Marino. The Kingdom of Italy was formed in 1860-61 by the union of the following states: Piedmont, Sardinia, Lombardy, the Emilian Provinces, the Marches, Umbria, Tuscany, Naples, and Sicily.

2. The divisions of Modern Italy correspond, in some degree, to

II.—1. How is Italy divided at present? What is its extent? (See table, opposite.)
2. What are the modern divisions of Italy? What is said of its ruins? 3. Describe

* The ancient name of Messina.

the ancient ones, and the various cities bear marks of different degrees of antiquity. At Rome, and in other places, are many ruins which date back for two thousand years.

3. The people of Italy are generally of a swarthy complexion, and though considerable differences are found between those of different districts, and though they have all lost the vigor of their ancestors, they are still distinguished by the same general characteristics, and by a high order of genius.

4. Ancient Italy comprised three great divisions: Cisalpine Gaul, in the north, Italy Proper, in the centre, and Magna Græcia, in the south.

5. Cisalpine Gaul was divided by the river Padus, now called the Po, into two separate territories, called Gallia Transpadana and Gallia Cispadana. The whole country was, after the Roman conquest, also termed Gallia Togata, in allusion to the people having adopted the use of the Roman *toga*, or cloak. Venetia was in the north-east, and Liguria in the south-east, of this region.

6. Italy Proper extended southward from Gallia Cispadana to the rivers Silauro and Trento, comprehending modern Tuscany, the Papal States, and the northern part of the kingdom of Naples. The ancient divisions were Etruria, Latium, Umbria, Picenum, Campania, Samnium, and the territory of the Sabines.

7. Etruria was a highly civilized country at an early date. Its inhabitants had made great advances in science and the arts before the foundation of Rome. Many of their sculptured gems, vases and paintings, still exist. The walls of their ancient cities are to be seen at the present day at Cortona, Perugia, Fiesole and other places. The Etruscans formed a confederation of twelve states, each of which was an independent community with regard to its domestic policy.

8. Latium lay on the western coast of Italy, between the Tiber and the Liris. In early times it was inhabited by various tribes, called Latins, Ausones, Rutuli, Sabines, Volsci, &c.

9. Campania extended along the western coast from the Liris to the Silauro, and comprised the territory around the city of Naples. This country has always been famous for its beauty and fertility. It suffered more frequent changes of inhabitants in early times, than any other part of Italy. Attracted by the fertility of the soil and the mildness of the climate, one horde of invaders poured in after another, and established their dominion here, until the Roman conquest secured the tranquillity of the country.

10. Magna Græcia was settled at an early period by colonies from Greece, who brought with them the arts and institutions of that country. It was divided into Apulia, Calabria, Lucania, and Bruttium. The most important city in Magna Græcia was Tarentum, the inhabitants of which were remarkable for their wealth and luxurious habits.

the people of Italy. 4. How was ancient Italy divided? 5. Describe Cisalpine Gaul. What name was given to it after the Roman conquest? 6. Describe Italy Proper. Its divisions. 7. What of the Etruscans? 8. Latium? 9. Campania? Its history? 10. Magna Græcia? Its divisions?

CHAPTER III.

Ancient Inhabitants of Italy.

1. By the light of the earliest historical records, it appears that Italy, between one and two thousand years before the Christian era, was inhabited by two races of people, differing from each other in language and manners. One race dwelt on the coast and the plains adjacent, and the other on the mountains in the interior.

2. The former were probably a part of the great Pelasgic tribe or family, which also inhabited Greece and Asia Minor in very ancient times. Of the latter, we know nothing previous to their appearance in the mountain regions of Italy, where they may be regarded as indigenous or native.

3. The Pelasgians of Italy seem to have been similar in character to those of Greece. They were an agricultural people, and built towns with Cyclopean walls of unhammered stone. Probably they came into Italy as conquerors or colonists; but after having been long settled here, it seems that the aboriginal mountaineers descended into their territories and subjugated them.

4. We then find the south of Italy occupied by a people calling themselves Ænотrians; the region in the neighborhood of the Tiber by the Siculi, who afterwards invaded the island of Trinacria and gave it the name of Sicily; and Etruria inhabited by the Tyrrhenians.

5. Other names appear shortly afterward in history. The Latins, according to tradition, were driven down the river Anio by the Sabines; and the latter, in their turn, expelled the Siculi, who proceeded south and crossed over the Strait of Messina.

6. About one thousand years before Christ, the Greeks began to found colonies in the south of Italy. The Chalcidians and Eretrians, from the island of Eubœa, built the cities of Cuma and Naples in Campania, and Rhegium on the strait. The Achæans built Sybaris, Crotona, and Metapontum.

7. In Sicily, the Dorian Greeks founded Messana, Syracuse, Hybla, Gela, and Agrigentum. The Ionians founded Naxos, Catana, and Himera. There were also Greek colonies in Corsica and Sardinia.

The teacher will here put such questions upon the map of ancient Italy as may familiarize the pupil with the divisions, &c.

III. — 1. What is the earliest knowledge we have of Italy? 2. What is known of the two races of inhabitants? 3. Who were the Pelasgians? 4. Who inhabited the south of Italy? 5. What is said of the Latins, Sabines and Siculi? 6. When did the Greeks begin to found colonies in Italy? What cities did they build here? 7. What settlements did they make in Sicily and elsewhere?

FIRST PERIOD OF ROMAN HISTORY.

FROM THE FOUNDATION OF ROME TO THE LAST OF THE KINGS

CHAPTER IV.

First Glimpses of Roman History. — Legends of Æneas.

1. THE early legends of Rome relate that this extraordinary nation had its origin from Æneus, a Trojan prince, who was driven from his native country in consequence of the capture and destruction of Troy by the Greeks, 1184 years before Christ.

2. According to this story, Æneus, with his father Anchises and a large train of followers, embarked in ships, and sought for a new home in the west. When they put to sea, the star of Venus, who was reputed to be the mother of Æneus, stood over their heads. After various adventures they landed in Italy, when the star disappeared and was seen no more.

3. By this sign the Trojans knew that they had reached the country which fate had destined for their home. When they had brought their gods on shore, they began to sacrifice; but the victim, a milk-white sow, broke from the priests and fled away.

4. Æneus followed her, for an oracle had told him that a four-footed beast should guide him to the spot where he was to build a city. She went forward till she came to a hill, where she lay down and produced a litter of thirty young ones. Æneus then heard a voice, saying, "The thirty young are thirty years; when that time has passed, thy children shall remove to a better land; meantime, build thy city here."

5. We have related this fable because it was believed by the Romans, and the memory of it was held sacred by them. Many circumstances in it are undoubtedly fictitious, but it does not appear that the whole was an invention of the poets. The facts probably were, that a colony of Greeks, driven from home by wars, came to this country, and established themselves in the neighborhood of the Tiber. Nothing else is certain.

6. A city was built here in the country called Latium. The king, Latinus, gave to Æneus his daughter, Lavinia, in marriage, and the rest of the Trojans formed matrimonial alliances with Latin families. But Turnus, a relation of the queen, had conceived an early attachment to Lavinia. Enraged and mortified that she should be possessed by a stranger, he joined the hostile nation of the Rutuli, and in the first battle that was fought, Turnus and Latinus were killed.

IV. — 1. Who was Æneus? 2. What is said of his voyage? 3. What happened at the landing of the Trojans in Italy? 4. Repeat the story of the milk-white sow. 5. What is the probable truth of this story? 6. What city did the Trojans first build? What

7. Having at length come into the peaceful possession of the throne, Æneas united the religion of Troy with that of Latium. He introduced the worship of Vesta, and many other Trojan deities.

8. The Rutuli having made an alliance with Mezentius, king of the Tyrrhenians, again forced Æneas into the field. The hostile armies met near Lavinium, and Æneas, being pressed by superior numbers to the banks of the Numicus, was driven into the river and drowned. The Trojans concealed his body, and gave out that he had ascended to heaven. A temple was erected to him under the name of *Jupiter Indigetes*.

9. The war continued between Mezentius and Ascanius, the son of Æneas. In a certain battle they met hand to hand, and Ascanius slew his antagonist. At length thirty years came to an end, and the Trojans removed to a mountain in the neighborhood overlooking a lake; here they built a city, which, from its shape, was called *Alba Longa*, or the "white long city."

CHAPTER V.

Legend of Romulus and Remus.



Romulus, Remus, and the Wolf.

1. ONE of the kings of Alba Longa was named Procas. He had two sons, Numitor and Amulius. When Procas died, Numitor, the elder son, should have succeeded to the throne, but Amulius seized it, and left to Numitor only his share of their father's private property.

was done by King Latinus? What became of him? 7. What did Æneas do respecting religion? 8. How did he die? What name was afterward given to him? 9. What took place at the end of thirty years?

2. After this he caused Numitor's only son to be slain, and made his daughter Sylvia become one of the vestal virgins, whose duty it was to watch the ever-burning fire of the goddess Vesta. But Sylvia had made a private marriage with a person whom the superstitious people believed to be the god Mars.

3. Twin children were born of this marriage, and Amulius ordered them immediately to be thrown into the Tiber. It happened that the river had just risen and flooded the country, and when the children were cast into the water, the basket which contained them floated to the foot of a hill called Palatine, where it upset, and the children were landed under a wild fig tree.

4. The Roman legends go on to state, that while the children were lying here, a she-wolf came down to the river to drink, and when she saw the infants she carried them to her den, hard by, and suckled them. After some days, Faustulus, the king's herdsman, discovered them, and carried them to his own house, on the Palatine hill, where they were brought up along with his children.

5. The twins were named Romulus and Remus. When they grew up, the herdsmen of the Palatine chanced to have a quarrel with some of the people belonging to the household of the king. The latter laid an ambush, and took Remus prisoner. The young man was carried before Amulius, who was struck with his noble carriage, and asked him who he was.

6. When Remus told him how he had been found near the river with his brother, the king was struck with surprise, and began to suspect that these might be the sons of his brother Numitor. In the mean time Faustulus and Romulus had raised their friends to rescue Remus.

7. These peasants formed themselves into companies of one hundred men each, carrying as ensigns, *manipuli*, or bundles of hay on long poles. Thus organized, they made a desperate attack upon the place where Amulius lodged, defeated his men, and put him to death. Old Numitor was then called from his private farm, and made king.

8. The two brothers, however, did not wish to live at Alba, but preferred the hill on the banks of the Tiber, where they had been brought up. They determined to build a city there, and inquired of the gods, by divination, which of them should give his name to the city. They watched the heavens from morning till night, and through the night till the next morning, for this was the practice in such cases.

9. Just as the sun was rising, Remus saw six vultures; immediately afterwards Romulus saw twelve. A dispute now arose, which of the two had beheld the truest sign of the gods' favor. The majority gave their opinion in favor of Romulus. So he began to build the city on the Palatine Hill.

V. — 1. What of Procas and his two sons? 2. What of Sylvia and Mars? 3. What happened to the twin children of Sylvia? 4. What story is related of the wolf? of Faustulus? 5, 6. What names were given to the twins? What adventure first made them known to the king? 7. What change did they make in the government? 8. What preparation did they make for building a city? 9. What happened respecting vultures?

CHAPTER VI.

Foundation of Rome.

1. REMUS was mortified and angry ; and when he saw the ditch and wall which were drawn round the space for the new city, he scornfully jumped over them, saying, " Will these keep out an enemy ? " Upon this insulting behavior, the man who had the charge of the workmen struck Remus a blow with a spade, and slew him.

2. Rome, as the city was named, from Romulus, is believed to have been founded 753 years before Christ. The Romans dated their events A. U. C., that is, *Anno ab Urbe Condita*, or in the " Year from the Foundation of the City."

3. When the city was finished by Romulus, it consisted of about a thousand dwellings, irregularly arranged. The inhabitants were principally employed in the cultivation of the soil. Romulus was chosen king, and immediately devoted himself to the formation of laws, and the establishment of good order among his subjects. He appointed twelve lictors for his body-guard, and divided the people into *curiæ*, *decuriæ*, patricians, plebeians, patrons, clients, &c.

4. He established a senate of one hundred patricians, who debated and decided upon measures proposed by the king. To the people he gave the power of electing magistrates and declaring war. Of the religious affairs of Rome he was equally careful ; he appointed priests, established festivals, and arranged a regular system of worship.

5. Nevertheless, Romulus found that his people were not sufficiently numerous, so he set apart an asylum in Rome to which any man might flee from the neighboring communities, and be safe from his pursuers. This rapidly increased the population of the city, and Rome became the refuge of a great many desperate characters, and fugitives of all kinds.

6. Rome being thus full of people, met with new embarrassments. Women were scarce, for the people of the neighboring cities would not give their daughters to the Romans for wives. Romulus was therefore determined to provide for this want by stratagem and force. The senate united with him in the project, and it was carried into effect, as will be seen in the next chapter.

VI. — 1. What caused the death of Remus ? 2. When was Rome founded ? How did the Romans date their time ? 3. Describe the new city. How did Romulus divide the people ? 4. What of the senate, the elections, religion, &c. ? 5. How was the population increased ? 6. What was the state of Rome with regard to women ?

CHAPTER VII

The Sabine Women*Carrying off the Sabine Women.*

1. A GREAT feast in honor of Neptune was ordained at Rome, and announced in all the neighboring towns. On such occasions there were always splendid shows and ceremonies, which drew crowds of spectators. The people of Cænina, Crustumium and Antemna, and a great multitude of Sabines, with their wives and children, flocked to Rome to witness the feast of Neptune.

2. The visitors were received with great civility by the Romans, but as soon as the shows began, a signal was given, and the Roman youth rushed into the crowd, seized the most beautiful girls, and carried them home for wives. The girls were soon reconciled to their husbands, but the strangers, whose daughters they were, took up arms to avenge this breach of hospitality.

3. The Sabines in particular, who had suffered chiefly on this occasion, took a very hostile and threatening attitude. They came with a great army under their king, Titus Tatius, and besieged Rome. The people of the city had built a strong fortress on the Capitoline Hill, which borders on the Tiber, and was at that time separated from the Palatine by a low swampy valley.

4. This fortress was the chief citadel and defence of Rome. The commander of it had a daughter named Tarpeia, who was in the fortress when the Sabines were encamped under the walls. As she

VII. — 1. What is said of the feast of Neptune? Who attended it? 2. How did the Romans treat the spectators? 3. What was done by the Sabines? Who commanded them? What fortress was built in Rome? 4. Who was Tarpeia? What bargain did

looked on the hosts of the besiegers, she was struck with the sight of their bracelets and collars of gold. Instigated by her avarice and love of finery, she entered into a treacherous correspondence with the enemy, promising to betray the citadel to them if they would give her "the bright things which they wore upon their arms."

5. This being agreed to, she watched her opportunity, and in an unguarded moment opened one of the gates of the place. The Sabines, as they entered, threw upon her their bright brazen shields, which they carried on their arms, and crushed her to death. Thus the Sabines got possession of this strong place, where they defied for some time the power of the Romans.

CHAPTER VIII.

War with the Sabines.

1. MANY battles ensued between the Romans and Sabines, in the valley which divided the two hills. The latter had the advantage, and approached close to one of the gates of Rome. As the story is told us, the inhabitants shut the gate, but it opened of its own accord, they shut it again, and again it opened. But as the enemy were rushing into the city, a mighty stream of water burst from the temple of Janus, and swept them away.

2. In commemoration of this wonderful event, it was ordered that ever afterward the temple of Janus should stand open in time of war, that the god might always be ready, as on this day, to go out and give his aid to the people of Rome.

3. The Romans now made an attempt to retake the citadel, but the Sabines threw great stones upon them from the walls. Romulus was struck upon the head, and his men began to flee, but he rallied them, and the fight waxed fiercer than ever. At this critical moment the Sabine wives of the Romans rushed into the thickest of the fight, between the contending hosts, and begged their husbands and fathers not to exterminate each other.

4. The sudden appearance of these females brought the conflict immediately to a pause. Both parties stood in astonishment gazing at each other. The intercessions and entreaties of the women at length inclined them to peace. A treaty was made, and the two nations were combined into one.

5. It was agreed that the two kings should reign jointly at Rome, and that the Romans should take the name of *Quirites*, from the city of the Sabines, which was called Quirium. The Sabines were to enjoy all the privileges of Roman citizens. Peculiar marks of distinction were conferred on the Sabine women, and their children were

she make with the Sabines? 5. How did they obtain possession of the fortress? What was the end of Tarpeia?

VIII.—1. How did the war with the Sabines proceed? What happened to the Sabines when they attempted to enter the gate? 2. What was done in commemoration of this? 3. How did the Sabine women conduct? 4. What was the consequence? 5.

allowed to wear garments and decorations to distinguish them from the rest of the people.

6. Tatius was killed at Lavinium, some time after this, and Romulus reigned alone. He was a just king, and humane towards his people. If any were guilty of crimes, he did not put them to death, but made them pay fines of sheep and oxen. In wars he was very successful, and enriched Rome with the spoils of her enemies.

CHAPTER IX.

Death of Romulus.

1. WHEN Romulus had reigned about forty years, he came to his end in a surprising manner, as the old legends relate. One day a public meeting was held in the Field of Mars, just without the city walls. All of a sudden arose a dreadful tempest; it was as dark as night; the rain, thunder and lightning so terrified the people, that they immediately fled home to their houses.

2. The storm blew over, but Romulus was nowhere to be found. It was believed that Mars, his father, had carried him up to heaven in his chariot. Some time afterward, a Roman who was returning to the city by night from Alba, saw the ghost of Romulus, in more than mortal beauty, which said to him, "Go, tell my people to weep no more for me. Bid them be brave and warlike, and they shall make my city the greatest upon earth." The phantom then disappeared.

3. This story was firmly believed by the Romans, and they gave Romulus the name of a god. They built him a temple, offered sacrifices to him, and worshipped him by the name of *Quirinus*. The Roman writers of later times discredited this supernatural tale, and were of opinion that Romulus was put to death by the senators, because he had attempted to usurp their authority.

4. Romulus having disappeared, there was no one to take his place. The senators refused to appoint a king, but they divided themselves into committees of ten, each body holding the kingly power for ten days in rotation. A year passed under this government; but the people murmured and clamored for a regular sovereign.

5. The Sabines and the Romans, though united, still kept up a party distinction, and could not agree, each wishing a king of their own side. At last it was agreed that he should be chosen from the Sabines, but that the Romans only should vote. The choice fell on Numa Pompilius, a man of high character for knowledge and integrity, and who is said to have learnt his wisdom from Pythagoras, the famous Greek philosopher.

How did the two nations unite? What name did the Romans take? What distinction was shown to the Sabine women? 6. What is said of the reign of Romulus?

IX. — 1. How long did Romulus reign? What happened in the Field of Mars? 2. What became of Romulus? What story is told of a phantom? 3. What was done to Romulus after his death? What was thought of this story in later times? 4. How was the government carried on after the death of Romulus? 5. Who was the next king? How was he chosen?

CHAPTER X

Reign of Numa.*Numa Pompilius.*

1. NUMA proved a most excellent king. He cherished the arts of peace, promoted agriculture, reformed the calendar, divided the citizens into classes according to their trades and pursuits, built temples, and regulated religious worship.

2. In all his acts of legislation, Numa professed to act under the direction of the goddess Egeria. She was believed to have taken him for her husband, and his hours of retirement were supposed to be passed in her company in a sacred grove near Rome, where a grotto and a spring of water were long afterwards known by her name.

3. This humane sovereign forbade all costly sacrifices and the shedding of blood upon the altars. He ordered that nothing should be offered to the gods except the fruits of the earth, meal, cakes of flour, and parched corn. He loved husbandry, and wished that every man might live happily on his own estate. The territories which the Romans had acquired in war he divided equally among the people.

X -- 1. How did Numa reign? 2. Who was Egeria? 3. What of sacrifices and

4. Everything in Rome was prosperous during the reign of Numa. The temple of Janus was shut, for there were no wars. A temple was built to Faith, and a solemn worship appointed for her, that men might learn to respect honesty and fair dealing. In such works Numa passed the whole of his happy reign, and died at the age of eighty, B. C. 670.

5. Tullus Hostilius was next chosen king. He was of a martial disposition, and soon had occasion to prove his valor. The borderers along the Roman and Alban territory began to rob each other, and this brought on hostilities. The Albans advanced to within five miles of Rome, where they pitched their camp. The two armies, feeling that they were descended from the same people, were for some time unwilling to fight.

6. The two leaders at length agreed to decide the quarrel by a combat to be fought by six champions, three from each side, and the victorious nation was to reign over the other. In the Roman army were three brothers, born at one birth, named Horatii. In the Alban army were three others like them, named Curiatii. These were fixed upon for the champions.

CHAPTER XI.

The Horatii and Curiatii.



Combat between the Horatii and Curiatii.

1. THE place of combat lay in an open space between the two marshalled hosts. The champions took their station amid the hopes

husbandry? 4. How did Rome flourish under Numa? When did he die? 5. Who succeeded him? What war took place? 6. How was it proposed to decide the war?

and anxieties of their countrymen. The glittering of their burnished swords, and the clashing of their armor as they rushed to the fight, stirred the blood of the spectators with a mighty thrill, and every man held his breath in dreadful solicitude.

2. Victory at first seemed to incline in favor of the Albans. Two of the Romans were killed, and the survivor was soon surrounded by his antagonists. A deafening shout of exultation was set up by the Alban army, and a cry of wailing ran through the Roman ranks. The single champion gave ground, and at length took to flight. Again the Albans made the welkin ring with shouts of victory.

3. But this exultation was premature. The three Albans were severely wounded, while the Roman remained unhurt. As the Albans lagged behind each other in the pursuit, the Roman suddenly turned upon them, struck down the foremost ere the second could come up to his relief; the next he despatched in the same manner; the third, wounded and dispirited by this sudden change of fortune, could not maintain a single combat, and fell likewise.

4. Victory having thus declared for the Romans, they marched home in triumph. Alba became bound to obey them, and their strength was now greatly augmented. But in a war with the Fidenates, the Alban general, Mettius Fuffetius, kept his army aloof instead of joining the Romans in battle, meaning to take the side of the conquerors.

5. The Romans having won the battle, determined to punish this act of treachery. They took Mettius and bound him between two chariots; then, driving the horses different ways, they tore him asunder. After this they went to Alba, destroyed the city, and compelled the inhabitants to emigrate to Rome.

6. Tullus reigned thirty-three years. He was killed by lightning, which struck his house and destroyed it, with all his family. Such is the old story, though some are of opinion that he was put to death, and his family exterminated, by Ancus Martius, who succeeded him on the throne.

CHAPTER XII.

Ancus Martius—Tarquin I.

1. ANCIENT history does not say much of Ancus Martius, who began his reign B. C. 638. He had a war with the Latins, whom he conquered and brought to Rome, where they were allowed the Aventine Hill to dwell upon. He also founded a colony at Ostia, where the Tiber flows into the Mediterranean, and added Mount Janiculum to Rome, joining it to the city by a bridge across the river.

XI. -- 1. How did the combat between the Horatii and Curiatii begin? 2. What misfortune first happened to the Romans? 3. Which side obtained the victory? 4. What happened in the war with the Fidenates? 5. How did the Romans punish Mettius? What became of Alba? 6. How did Tullus die?

2. During the reign of Ancus, there came to Rome from Tarquinii, a city of Etruria, a wealthy person whom the Romans called Tarquin, or Lucius Tarquinius. His father was a Greek of Corinth, who had emigrated to Etruria and married a wife there. Lucius was regarded as a foreigner in that country, on account of his father, and therefore removed to Rome with his wife, because foreigners were there held in more respect than among the Etruscans.

3. The legend of Tarquin relates that as he sat with his wife in a chariot approaching the gates of Rome, an eagle plucked the cap from his head, flew up into the air, and then returning, placed it on his head again. Tanaquil, his wife, was well skilled in augury, and told her husband that this was a sign he would rise to greatness.

4. Tarquin having settled in Rome, showed himself a brave man and wise in council. His riches gained him the favor of the multitude, and he became known to the king. Tarquin served him well in peace and war, so that Ancus held him in great honor, and when the king died, he appointed him by will to be the guardian of his children.

5. Tarquin being popular among all classes of the Romans, was chosen king, B. C. 609. He conquered the Latins and Etruscans, and then devoted himself to the improvement of the city. He built the walls of Rome with hewn stone, and constructed a vast drain to carry off the water of the streets into the river. This work remains to the present day.

6. Tarquin built also a great circus, or race-course for chariot and horse-races, and made the celebrated forum or public square of Rome, where markets were held, and great speeches were commonly made.

7. One day when Attius Nævius, a great soothsayer, had opposed a certain design of Tarquin, as contrary to the will of the gods, Tarquin mocked at his art, and said, "Come now, augur; tell me by thy soothsaying whether the thing which I have in my mind be possible or not." Nævius answered, "It is possible."

8. "Then," said the king, "cut this whetstone with a knife, for that is what I was thinking of." "Cut boldly," replied the augur. The king cut, and the whetstone came in two. All the old Romans believed this tale, but it was probably invented by the priests to keep up the popular belief in the art of augury.

CHAPTER XIII.

Reign of Servius Tullius.

1. TARQUIN reigned long and prosperously. He is known in Roman history as Tarquinius Priscus, or Tarquin the First. The

XII. — 1. When did Ancus Martius begin to reign? What were his deeds? 2. Who was Tarquin? Why did he remove to Rome? 3. What is the legend of the eagle? How was it explained? 4. How did Tarquin succeed at Rome? 5. When was he chosen king? What were his deeds? 6. What public works did he construct? 7. Who was Attius Nævius? 8. What is the story about cutting a whetstone? What is the probability of this?

sons of Ancus Martius, hoping to gain the crown, caused him to be assassinated. But Tanaquil, as soon as the assassins had fled, gave out that he was only stunned by the blow, and that his son-in-law, Servius Tullius, would manage his affairs till he recovered. In the mean time Servius managed to secure himself in the possession of the government.

2. Servius began his reign B. C. 576. He was a just and good king, and made many wise laws to screen the poor from the oppressions of the rich. He added the Esquiline and Viminal hills to the city, and divided the citizens into tribes. He gave freedom to the slaves, and abridged the arbitrary power of the crown.

3. Servius had no son, but he had two daughters who were married to the sons of the late King Tarquin. The younger daughter, Tullia, was an ambitious and wicked woman; she formed the scheme of murdering her husband and sister that she might marry her brother-in-law. Having accomplished this by poison, she next aspired to the crown.

4. Lucius, her husband, joined with her in a plot for this purpose. He fomented a conspiracy among the young nobles, and placing himself at the head of an armed band, proceeded to the senate-house and placed himself on the throne. The king, hearing this news, hastened thither and demanded the meaning of his conduct. Lucius replied that the throne was his, and immediately seizing the old man, threw him down the steps of the senate-house.

5. Servius attempted to save himself by flight, but was overtaken and murdered in the street. Tullia, his daughter, impatient to see her husband king, mounted her chariot and drove toward the senate-house.

6. Meeting the bloody corpse of the old king, the charioteer checked his horses, but this detestable woman ordered him to drive on, and the wheels rolled over his body. The spot where this unnatural deed was performed is pointed out at this day in Rome, and the street is called *Via Scelerata*, or the "Wicked Way."

CHAPTER XIV.

Reign of Tarquin the Proud.

1. LUCIUS TARQUINIUS thus became king of Rome, B. C. 529. He is the one known in history as Tarquinius Superbus, or the Proud. As he gained his power by crime, so he exercised it. He kept a guard of men around him, and ruled in an arbitrary manner. He plundered the rich men of their wealth, banishing some and putting others to death. In foreign affairs he behaved with great treachery.

XIII. — 1. How did Tarquin I. die? What was done by his wife? 2. When did Servius Tullius begin his reign? What was his character? His deeds? 3. His daughter's? What was done by Tullia? 4. What by Lucius? How did he treat his father-in-law? 5. What became of Servius? How did Tullia behave? 6. What is said of her unnatural cruelty? What name is given to the street where this deed was performed?

XIV. — 1. When did Tarquin the Proud begin to reign? What was his conduct

2. A strange woman came one day to the king and offered him nine books of the prophecies of the Sibyl at a certain price. The king refused them. The woman went away and burnt three of the books. She then came back and offered the six at the same price which she had asked for the nine. Tarquin still refused. She went away again and burnt three more, and returning, still demanded the same price for the remainder.

3. At this the king was astonished, and asked the augurs what he should do. They told him he had done wrong in refusing the gifts of the gods, and bade him by all means buy the books that were left. So Tarquin bought them, and the woman went away and was seen no more. The books were put into a chest of stone and placed under ground in the capitol. They became the oracles of Rome, and were called the *Sibylline Books*.

4. Tarquin subdued the Volscians and Gabians, and made his son, Sextus, king of the latter people. But the power which he had acquired by treachery and oppression did not last long. Among the men whom he had injured, was Marcus Junius, who had married the daughter of Tarquin the First. His son, Lucius Junius Brutus, had assumed the character of an idiot, to evade the cruelty of the tyrant.



Brutus pretends to be an Idiot.

5. The Roman army marched against the city of Ardea, and laid siege to it; but as the city was strong, much time was spent in the enterprise. The besiegers had leisure for feasting and diversion, and one evening Titus and Aruns, the sons of the king, were supping with their brother Sextus, and their cousin Tarquinius of Collatia, on

2. What story is told of a strange woman? 3. What were the Sibylline books?
4. What nations did Tarquin subdue? What is said of Marcus and Junius Brutus?

Collatinus. They got into a dispute about their wives, each one professing to have the worthiest.

6. "Let us mount our horses," said one of them, "and ride immediately to Rome, to see what our wives are doing; then we shall know which is the best." This was accordingly done; they found the wives of Titus, Aruns, and Sextus, feasting and making merry. But Lucretia, the wife of Collatinus, was found working with her maids at the loom. They all then exclaimed, "Lucretia is the worthiest lady!"

CHAPTER XV.

Overthrow of Tarquin the Proud.



Tarquinius Superbus banished and leaving Rome.

1. **SEXTUS** was so much taken with the beauty of **Lucretia**, that he fell into a violent passion for her. And some time afterwards, he behaved towards her in so brutal a manner that the unhappy lady, unable to survive the insult, stabbed herself to the heart. **Brutus**, who was present when the deed was done, drew the knife from the wound, and took an oath by the blood which stained it, that he would be avenged on the tyrant and his hated offspring.

2. The people of Rome were wrought up to great indignation by this outrage. **Tarquin** was absent, and they shut the gates of the city. The bloody corpse of **Lucretia** was exposed to public view,

5, 6. What happened at the siege of Ardea? How was the superiority of **Lucretia** proved?

XV.—1. What effect did the beauty of **Lucretia** have upon **Sextus**? What was the fate of **Lucretia**? How did **Brutus** behave? 2. What was the conduct of the Romans?

and Brutus harangued the people, explaining the reasons why he had counterfeited his idiocy, and exhorted them to aid him in expelling the tyrant.

3. The senate declared Tarquin to be expelled from the throne. The people were called together in the Field of Mars, to form a new government. It was resolved that there should be no more kings of Rome, and that two chief magistrates should be elected annually, with the title of *Consuls*. This important revolution in the Roman government took place B. C. 508.

4. With this change many of the laws of King Servius, which Tarquin the Proud had overthrown, were restored. The commoners also chose their own judges to try suits at law, and they had again their meetings and sacrifices, each tribe in its own district. Brutus and Publius Valerius were the first consuls.

5. But in the mean while Tarquin was busily at work attempting to regain his authority. He sent emissaries privately to Rome, who organized a conspiracy in his favor. Titus and Tiberius, the sons of Brutus, were among the conspirators. Their proceedings were discovered by a slave who overheard them talking about the letters which they had written to Tarquin, and they were immediately arrested.

6. Brutus sat on the judgment-seat in the forum, and with the feelings of stern patriotism, ordered the execution of his own sons. The lictors struck off their heads before the eyes of their father. The people were filled with admiration when they saw that Brutus had loved justice and his country more than his own children, and had sacrificed them to the public welfare.

CHAPTER XVI.

Government of Rome under the Kings.

1. THE regal office at Rome very much resembled that of the heroic ages of Greece; but it differed from it in being elective, and not hereditary. The king had the absolute command of the army. He offered sacrifices for the nation. He convoked the senate and the people, and proposed laws to them.

2. He could punish by fines and corporal penalties; but an appeal lay from his sentence to the citizens. He had an unlimited power over strangers in the Roman territories, as well as over those citizens who had no houses. He sat personally for the administration of justice every ninth day. He could dispose of the booty and the land acquired in war, and a large portion of the conquered territory belonged to the crown. This was cultivated by the king's dependants, and yielded him a large revenue.

3. Of the senate? What new magistrates were next chosen? When did this change in the government take place? 4. What alteration did this cause in the laws? Who were the first consuls? 5. What was done by Tarquin? Who were engaged in the conspiracy? How was it discovered? 6. How did Brutus judge his sons?

XVI. — 1. What was the regal office at Rome? 2. What power had the king?

3. All the Roman kings, after they had subdued a city, transported a part of the inhabitants to Rome, and if they did not destroy the subjugated place, they garrisoned it with a Roman colony. The strangers thus brought to Rome were not, however, admitted to the civic rights of the kingdom.

4. By successive conquests and immigrations, the number of persons thus disqualified became larger than that of the first inhabitants, and they naturally sought a share in the government, to protect their persons and property. This subsequently led to violent struggles in the state.

5. The inhabitants of the city were first divided by Romulus into thirty *curiæ*, and each *curia* comprised ten *gentes*, or associations. The members were united by certain laws called *jura gentium*. The head of each *gens* was regarded as a kind of father, and possessed a paternal authority over the members.

6. In each *gens* were attached numbers of dependents, called *clients*. These were generally foreigners who came to settle at Rome, and who, not possessing municipal rights, were forced to appear in the courts of law, &c., by proxy. In process of time, this relation assumed a feudal form, and the clients were bound to the same duties as vassals in the middle ages.

7. The chiefs of the *gentes*, composed the senate, and hence were called *patres*, or "fathers." In the time of Romulus, the senate consisted at first of one hundred members, but this number was doubled after the union with the Sabines. The *gentes* were not only represented in the senate, but met also in a public assembly called *comitia curiata*. In these meetings, the kings were elected and invested with royal authority.

8. The whole constitution was remodelled by Servius Tullius, and a more liberal form of government introduced. He formed the plebeians into an organized body, and invested them with political rights. Still more remarkable was the institution of the census, and the distribution of the people into classes and centuries proportionate to their wealth.

9. The census was a periodical valuation of all the property possessed by the citizens, and an enumeration of all the subjects of the state. The equestrian rank, or the knights, constituted an order in the Roman state, from the beginning. It was at first confined to the nobility, and none but the patricians had the privilege of thus serving in the army on horseback. But in the later ages, it became a political dignity, and persons were made knights by the amount of their wealth.

3. How did the kings improve their conquests? How were the new citizens circumstanced? 4. What were their numbers? What was the consequence? 5. How were the Romans originally divided? What names were given to the divisions? 6. Who were the clients? 7. The senate? The *comitia*? 8. How was the constitution remodelled by Servius? 9. What was the census? Who were the knights?

CHAPTER XVII.

Ancient Roman Armies—Customs in Founding Cities.

1. **ROME** was, from its very beginning, a military state. With this people, as with the Spartans, all civil institutions had a reference to warlike affairs. The public assemblies were marshalled like armies. The order of their line of battle was regulated by the distinction of classes in civil society. It was natural, therefore, that the tactics of the Roman armies should receive important changes with the political revolutions of the state.

2. The strength of the Etruscan armies consisted principally in their cavalry; and if we may judge from the importance attributed to the equestrian rank in the earliest ages, the Romans at that time esteemed this force equally valuable. It was to Servius Tullius, the great patron of the commonalty, that they were indebted for a body of infantry, which, after a lapse of centuries, received so many improvements that it became invincible.

3. The ancient battle-array of the Greeks was the phalanx. The troops were drawn up in close column, the best armed being in front. The Romans originally used this form, the lines being made up according to the classes of subjects. Those who were rich enough to purchase a whole suit of armor, formed the front ranks. Those who could procure only a portion of the defensive weapons, filled the centre. The rear ranks comprised the poorer classes, who scarcely required any armor, being protected by the lines in front.

4. It is not known what commander first abandoned this imperfect array for the admirable order of the *legion*; but this great improvement in the art of war belongs doubtless to the republic.

5. Rome was originally built in a square form, whence it was called *Roma Quadrata*. When the city was founded, and when it was at any subsequent period enlarged, the first care was to mark out the *Pomerium*, a consecrated space around the walls of the city. On this it was unlawful to erect any building.

6. This custom manifestly arose from the necessity of preventing besiegers from finding shelter near the fortifications. A set form was prescribed for marking the *Pomerium*. A bullock and a heifer were yoked to a ploughshare, and a furrow was drawn marking the course of the future wall.

7. The plough was so guided that all the sods fell to the inside, and if any went in an opposite direction, care was taken that they should be turned the proper way. As the plough was sacred, it would have been profanation if anything impure passed over the ground which it had ever touched.

8. But as things clean and unclean must necessarily pass into a city, when the plough came to a place where a gate was intended, it

XVII. — 1. What was the original character of Rome? 2. What is said of the Etruscan armies? Who created the Roman infantry? 3. What was the phalanx? How did the Romans form it? 4. How did the legion originate? 5. How was Rome originally built? What was the *pomerium*? 6. What gave rise to this custom? 7. How was

was taken up and carried across. Hence the Latins named a gate *porta*, from a word signifying to "carry."

9. The *comitium*, or place of public assembly, was next consecrated. The most remarkable part of this ceremony was the preparation of a vault named *mundus*, in which were deposited the first fruits of all things used to support life, and a portion of each citizen's native earth.

10. To this structure, many superstitious notions were attached. It was supposed to be the entrance to the invisible world; and it was opened three days in the year, with many solemn forms, to admit the spirits of the deceased.

11. Ancus Martius was the first who fortified Rome with outworks, especially by erecting a castle on the Janiculate Hill, which was connected with the city by a wooden bridge. The elder Tarquin was the first who beautified his capital with splendid buildings.

CHAPTER XVIII.

Literature of the Romans under the Kings.

1. Few nations have been more completely illiterate than the Romans were during five centuries from the foundation of their city. Yet of all the nations which have figured in the annals of the world, none certainly ever attained to the same height of power, grandeur and civil wisdom, with an equal ignorance of literature and the fine arts.

2. It is not difficult to account for this. Rome was not a regular colony sent out from a civilized and well-regulated state, but was formed by a mixture of all sorts of people, little, if at all, acquainted with social life. The early Romans were, in fact, a banditti, inured to lawless acts, and subsisting by rapine.

3. This desperate community would not be much softened or humanized by their union with the Sabines, if we may judge of the civilization of the latter people by the story of Tarpeia. Numa did much for the domestic improvement of his subjects. He impressed their minds with a reverence for religion, and encouraged agriculture, but there was no germ of literature which he could foster.

4. For more than three centuries after his death, the persevering hostilities of the neighboring states scarcely allowed the Romans a moment of repose. The laws of Romulus, which consigned, as ignominious, all sedentary occupations to foreigners or slaves, long continued in undiminished respect and observance.

5. The shape in which literature first appears among a rude people is poetry; but for centuries, the Romans had nothing which can

it celebrated? 8. Why was a gate called *porta*? 9. What of the *comitium*? 10. The *mundus*? 11. Who first built outworks to Rome? Who erected the first splendid buildings?

XVIII. — 1. What was the state of literature among the early Romans? 2. How is this explained? 3. What of the Sabines? Of Numa? 4. What of the hostilities of the Romans? Of the laws of Romulus? 5. How does literature first appear? What

properly be called by this name. The earliest specimen of their verse is a hymn which was chanted by the *Fratres Arvales*, or college of priests, as they walked in procession through the fields in the beginning of spring, imploring from the gods a blessing on agriculture.

6. Some suppose this to be as ancient as the time of Romulus ; the Latin of it is rude, and difficult of translation. The following is the sense :

Ye Lares, aid us ! Mars, thou god of might !
From murrain shield the flocks ; the flowers from blight.
For thee, O Mars ! a feast shall be prepared ;
Salt, and a wether chosen from the herd,
Invite by turns each Demigod of Spring ;
Great Mars, assist us ; Triumph ! Triumph ! sing !

7. The *Fescennine* verses appear to have been known to the Romans at a very early period. These were rude and satirical strains rehearsed by the Etruscans at certain festivals in the time of harvest, and accompanied with rustic gestures and dances. Their name was probably derived from Fescennium, a city of Etruria.

8. They were also called *Saturnian*, from the irregularity of their metre, or their freedom from definite rules of composition. They were of a very licentious character, which it became necessary to restrain by law. Traces of this sort of poetry were retained in the latest periods of ancient Rome, in the songs of the young men on nuptial occasions.

SECOND PERIOD.

THE REPUBLIC.

CHAPTER XIX.

War of Porsenna.

1. WHEN Tarquin found that his plot had miscarried, he persuaded some of the Etruscans to attempt his restoration by force of arms. They assembled a body of soldiers, and Tarquin took the command. Brutus led a Roman army to meet them. Aruns, the son of Tarquin, who commanded the Etruscan cavalry, being in the vanguard, chanced to encounter Brutus, who was leading the advance body of the Romans.

2. Aruns, seeing Brutus in his consular robes, and with the lictors of a king around him, was inflamed with sudden anger. He levelled

as the earliest specimen of Roman verse ? 6. What is its age ? 7, 8. What are the Fescennine verses ?

XIX. — 1. What did Tarquin after the failure of his plot ? What of Brutus ? 2. What

his spear and spurred his horse against him. Brutus met him in the same manner; each ran his spear through the body of his antagonist, and both fell dead. A general engagement followed, but the victory inclined to neither side.

3. In the middle of the night after the battle, there came a mysterious voice out of a wood near the two armies, proclaiming that the Etruscans had lost one man more than the Romans. At this sound, the Etruscans, who were very superstitious, were struck with awe, and immediately marched home. Perhaps the voice was a stratagem of some sagacious Roman.

4. Valerius, the surviving consul, administered his authority with such popular applause, that he received the surname of *Poplicola*, or Friend of the People. Tarquin, however, was not idle; he went to Clusium, a city in the most distant part of Etruria, and engaged king Porsenna to assist him. A large army was raised, and Porsenna marched against Rome.

5. Mount Janiculum, beyond the Tiber, formed one of the outskirts of the city. Porsenna attacked this point, and drove the Romans down the eminence across the river. A wooden bridge crossed the stream here, and the Etruscans followed the Romans so closely that the latter had hardly time to escape.

6. A Roman, named Horatius Cocles, stood firm upon the bridge, and faced the enemy. Two others, incited by his example, stood by him, and these three kept the pursuers at bay while the Romans on their own side were cutting away the bridge. Horatius, finding his companions disabled, bade them save themselves.

7. Thus he stood single-handed, defying the whole force of the Etruscans, who showered their javelins upon his shield. At length, finding the bridge nearly cut away, he leaped into the river and swam safely to the shore. For this gallant act he was afterwards honored with a statue in the forum, and a gift of as much land as he could draw a plough round in the course of a day.

CHAPTER XX.

Mucius Scaevola — Battle of Regillus.

1. BUT Rome, although saved from this assault, was not yet safe. The Etruscans pressed the siege, and the people of the city suffered from famine. At length, a young man named Mucius resolved to assassinate Porsenna. He disguised himself as a peasant, crossed the river into the enemy's camp, and looked about for the king.

2. Seeing a man sitting on a lofty seat, wearing a scarlet robe, and many people coming and going about him, he had no doubt that this was Porsenna. He pushed through the crowd, and drawing a

happened in the battle? 3. What in the night following? 4. What of Valerius? Of Porsenna? 5. What happened at Mount Janiculum? 6. What of Horatius Cocles? 7. How was he honored by his countrymen?

XX. — 1. What took place during the siege of Rome? 2. How did Mucius succeed

dagger from under his clothes, stabbed him dead. But on being seized, he discovered that this was only the king's secretary.

3. Mucius was carried before the king, and threatened with the torture, unless he would tell all he knew of the condition of the Romans. But he defied their threats, and to show how little he feared the torture, he thrust his right hand into a fire that was burning nearby, and held it there without flinching, till it was burnt off.

4. Porsenna, in admiration of his courage, gave him his liberty; but Mucius told him that there were three hundred young men in Rome who had bound themselves by oath to take his life. The king, believing this tale, was greatly alarmed, and made proposals of peace to the Romans. A treaty was concluded, and the Etruscans marched home.

5. Such is the story related in the Roman annals. Nevertheless, there is good reason to believe that Porsenna captured Rome, and compelled the inhabitants to give up all their arms. The legend of Mucius appears to be little more than a romance invented by the Romans to disguise the mortifying fact of the surrender of their city.

6. A new war was afterwards excited by the Tarquins, and Posthumius was appointed dictator. The Romans and Latin armies met near the lake Regillus. After an obstinate battle neither side prevailed, and it was agreed to decide the struggle by single combat. Two champions took the field; but the only result was that both were wounded and thrown from their horses.

7. The battle, therefore, began again; the Romans had the worst, and began to fly. In this critical emergency the dictator made a vow that he would raise a temple to the twin gods, Castor and Pollux, if they would aid him. Suddenly, as we are told, appeared two horsemen of gigantic height, on snow-white steeds, who rode at the head of the Roman cavalry, and put the enemy to flight.

8. The Romans pursued the flying Latins to their camp. After this was taken and a full victory accomplished, they looked for the white horsemen, but they were nowhere to be seen. On a hard black rock close by, was discovered the deep mark of a horse's hoof, which it was thought no earthly animal could have made. This hoof-mark was still to be seen in the time of Cicero, more than four hundred years afterward.

9. We must relate the sequel of this wonderful story, as the Romans for many ages believed every word of it. During the battle, the people of Rome, who knew that the armies were engaged at a distance from the city, were in great anxiety to know the result. As the sun was going down, the two horsemen made their appearance in the forum. They were all bloody from the engagement, and their horses were covered with foam.

10. The horsemen alighted near the temple of Vesta, where a spring of water bubbles up from the ground, and fills a deep pool. There they washed away the stains of the conflict, and the people crowded around them, asking the news. The horsemen told them

in his attempt? 2. How did he behave in the presence of Porsenna? 4. How did Porsenna behave? 5. What is the probable truth of the story? 6. What new war broke out? 7. What happened at the lake of Regillus? 8. What is the story of the white

how the battle had been fought and won by the Romans; then mounting their steeds, suddenly disappeared. The people believed them to be Castor and Pollux, and built them a temple, according to the vow of the dictator.

11. The Latins were now completely subjugated. But no sooner were the Romans relieved from the fear of foreign enemies, than they began to have troubles at home. The patricians and the plebeians formed two parties, and in the midst of the disturbances occasioned by their disagreement, the Volscians, the Sabines, and the Hernici, took up arms and advanced to the gates of the city. This attack was repelled, but the war continued, and before long a critical conjuncture of affairs led to an important change in the commonwealth.

CHAPTER XXI.

Internal Troubles at Rome.

1. At Rome, as in the ancient world in general, the laws regulating the payment of debts were very severe. A person wishing to borrow money, pledged himself and all that belonged to him, before witnesses, for the payment. If the money was not repaid at the appointed time, the debtor was carried before the prætor, who sentenced him to be a slave to his creditor.

2. Such of the debtor's children and grandchildren as were still under his authority, shared his fate. The rate of interest was unlimited by law, and loans were usually made for the term of ten months, at the end of which, if the principal was not repaid, the interest was added to it. By this process of compound interest, a small debt soon rose to an amount impossible to be paid.

3. The creditors were generally the patricians, the debtors were the plebeians, who were exclusively devoted to agriculture. The patricians, having got the government into their own hands, managed to obtain an exemption from the tithes for the lands which they held, and by this means grew very rich.

4. On the other hand, these taxes were rigorously exacted from the plebeians, whose little farms, lying frequently at a distance from Rome, were exposed to the ravages of the enemy, at which times their houses were burnt, their cattle carried off, and their farming implements destroyed.

5. To add to these distresses, the loss of the territory beyond the Tiber had reduced many families to absolute beggary, and the patricians excluded the plebeians from the public pastures. From all these causes the lower classes became hopelessly in debt, and were driven to despair by the rigor of their creditors.

6. In this posture of affairs, a single spark kindled a great conflagration.

horsemen? 9, 10. What happened at Rome? 11. What took place after the subjugation of the Latins?

XXI. — 1. What was the condition of debtors at Rome? 2. What was the rate of interest? 3. What of the creditors? 4. The plebeians? 5. What was the general consequence?

eration. During the consulship of Appius Claudius and Publius Servilius, B. C. 492, one day an old man, covered with rags and filth, pale, emaciated, and frightful from his squalid hair and beard, rushed into the forum, imploring the aid of the people.

7. He exhibited the scars of the wounds which he had received in twenty-eight battles with the enemies of Rome. Several persons recognized him as one whom they had known for a gallant captain in the army, and eagerly inquired the cause of his wretched appearance.

8. He informed them that while he was serving in the Sabine war, his farm had been plundered and his house burnt by the enemy; the taxes had nevertheless been exacted from him, he had been obliged to borrow money; compound interest had eaten up all his property, and the sentence of the law had given him and his two sons as slaves to his creditor. He then bared his back and showed the marks of recent stripes he had received as such.

CHAPTER XXII.

Revolt of the Plebeians.

1. A GENERAL uproar was the consequence of this singular exhibition. The multitude crowded the streets, clamoring for relief: the senators were struck with consternation, and it was with difficulty that a sufficient number of them were assembled for public business. Appius proposed to put down the mob by force. Servilius was for milder courses; and at this moment news arrived that the Volscians were in arms against Rome.

2. This intelligence was received with great exultation by the lower classes. They refused to enlist for the war, and cried out that the patricians might go and fight their own battles. The senate empowered Servilius to treat with them. He issued an edict proclaiming that no one who was in slavery for debt should be prevented from serving in the army if he chose, and that as long as a man was under arms, no one should touch his property, or keep his children in bondage.

3. This had the desired effect; the debtors came out of their dungeons and joined the ranks. A large army took the field under the command of Servilius, the Volscians were defeated, their town of Suessa Pomertia was taken, and the plunder given up to the army. The consul led home his victorious troops, full of hope; but a bitter disappointment awaited all, when the iron-hearted Appius ordered the debtors back to their prisons.

4. Dreadful clamors and disturbances ensued, and the next attempt to raise an army was fruitless. The people held nocturnal meetings

dition of the lower classes? 6. What happened B. C. 492? 7, 8. What was the story of the old man?

XXII. — 1. What was the consequence of the exhibition in the forum? What new war broke out? 2. How did this affect the lower classes? What was done by the senate? 3. How were the debtors affected? How did the war against the Volscians succeed? What was the conduct of Appius? 4. What was the behavior of the people?

on the Aventine and Esquiline hills, to concert measures of resistance. In this emergency Marcus Valerius was appointed dictator.

5. He issued an edict similar to that of Servilius; the people, with whom he was a favorite, readily enlisted; the armies marched against the Sabines, the Volscians and the Æquians. Victory was everywhere with the Romans. Valerius, on his return, attempted to procure a redress of the popular grievances from the senate, but in vain.

6. The plebeians, seeing no chance of legal relief, withdrew from the city; a portion took post on a hill about three miles distant; others occupied the Aventine hill, and everything threatened bloodshed and civil war.

CHAPTER XXIII.

Menenius Agrippa.

1. BOTH the patricians and plebeians were aware that the issue of their conflict was doubtful, and that the enemy might take advantage of these intestine troubles to accomplish the ruin of Rome. A mutual wish for accommodation therefore prevailed; and the patricians, having strengthened themselves by an alliance with the Latins, deputed ten senators to visit the plebeian camp and propose terms of peace.

2. One of these, named Menenius Agrippa, addressed on this occasion the following apologue to the people. "In ancient times, when the human body was not, as at present, an individual whole, but every member had its own separate plans, purposes, will, and language, it happened that on a certain emergency the limbs fell into a quarrel with the stomach.

3. "They complained that this member remained idle in the midst of them, doing nothing but enjoying itself. To gratify their enmity, they agreed that they would no longer labor for it. The hands therefore refused to convey food to the mouth; the mouth refused to open, the teeth to chew, &c.

4. "But while they thus attempted to starve the stomach, they were starving themselves; and when they were reduced to the most deplorable state of feebleness, they discovered that the stomach is by no means useless; that it gives as well as receives nourishment, distributing to all parts of the body, life and health."

5. Having propounded this fable, the design of which was to show that all classes of people are useful and necessary to each other in a state, Menenius and his colleagues proceeded to treat with the people, and an agreement was soon made and sworn to by the two orders.

6. By this treaty all existing debts were cancelled, and all persons in slavery for debt were liberated. The plebeians having offered sacrifices to Jupiter on the hill where they had encamped, bestowed upon it the name of the Sacred Mount, and returned to their dwellings in the city.

Who was made dictator? 5. How did he conduct the war? 6. What was done by the plebeians?

XXIII. — 1. What was done by the patricians and plebeians? 2, 3, 4. Relate the fable of Menenius Agrippa. 5. What followed? 6. What was the character and effect of the treaty? What name was given to the hill where the people encamped?

CHAPTER XXIV.

Banishment of Coriolanus.

1. THE neglect of agriculture, occasioned by the numerous wars of the Romans, caused a severe famine. Disturbances took place in consequence, and the senate and people became highly inflamed against each other. At length a supply of corn was sent to Rome by the people of Sicily, as the American people lately sent corn and flour to the starving Irish.

2. It was proposed to distribute this supply at once among the people; but this was opposed by Caius Marcius, a senator renowned for his bravery, who had received the surname of Coriolanus, from a famous exploit in capturing the town of Corioli. This man disliked the commons, and was angry that they had got tribunes to be their leaders.

3. Coriolanus made insulting speeches against the commons. "If they want bread to eat," said he, "let them behave better, and give up their tribunes. We will then give them corn, and take care of them." The commons, when they heard this, were quite furious, and they would have fallen upon him in the street and torn him to pieces; but the tribunes withheld them, and promised to bring an accusation against Coriolanus.

4. They accordingly indicted him on a charge of aspiring to the sovereign authority. Coriolanus was banished from Rome, and took refuge among the Volscians. They received him kindly, and Attius Tullius, their chief man, took him into his house. Here he lived in exile; his wife, Veturia, and his mother, Volumnia, remaining at Rome.

5. The Volscians before long became involved in a war with the Romans. They raised a large army, and marched under the guidance of Tullius and Coriolanus, and laid waste the Roman territories. They met with success everywhere, but devastated only the lands belonging to the commons. They next surrounded the city, and closely besieged it.

6. Within the walls there was nothing but tumult, distress, and lamentation. The women ran to the temples of the gods to pray for mercy; the poor people cried out in the streets for peace, and at length the senate were compelled to appoint deputies to treat with the enemy.

7. Coriolanus received the deputies, and answered them thus:—"We will give you no peace till you restore to the Volscians all the territories which you and your forefathers have taken from them, and till you have granted them all the privileges of Roman citizens."

XXIV. — 1. What caused a famine at Rome? What was the consequence? Who supplied the Romans with corn? 2. Who opposed the distribution of it among the people? 3. How did Coriolanus treat the commons? What was the consequence? 4. To what city did Coriolanus retire? 5. What happened in the Volscian war? 6. What was the condition of Rome? 7. How did Coriolanus receive the Roman deputies? 8. What was the conduct of the senate?

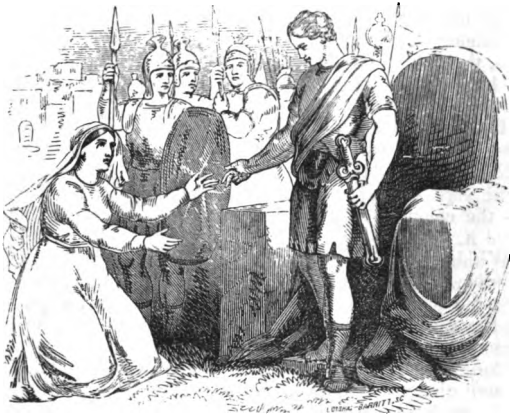
8. The senate would not agree to these conditions, and sent repeated embassies to beg for milder terms, but the sturdy Coriolanus sent them back to the city. Despair now began to seize upon the Romans, and they imagined that Coriolanus intended to make a general massacre of his countrymen.

CHAPTER XXV.

Veturia and Volumnia.

1. At length it was determined, as a last resource, to send a deputation of the Roman matrons, attended by Veturia and Volumnia, with the children of Coriolanus. It was a sad and mournful sight to see this train of noble ladies; the very Volscian soldiers stood in silence as they passed by, and pitied and honored them.

2. They found Coriolanus sitting on a general's seat in the midst of the camp, with the Volscian chiefs standing round him. When he saw his mother, who walked at the head of the train, he could not contain himself, but leaped down from his seat and ran to kiss her. She stopped him and said, "Ere thou kiss me, let me know whether I am speaking to my son or to an enemy, — whether I stand here as thy prisoner or as thy mother."



Coriolanus and his Mother.

3. Coriolanus, in astonishment and perplexity, knew not what to reply; he stood in silence, and she continued, "Must it be thus, that Rome would have escaped the dishonor of beholding an enemy's

camp at her walls, had I never borne a son! — that if I had remained childless I should have died a free woman in a free city! But I am, too old to bear much longer either thy shame or my misery. Look upon thy wife and children, whom thou art dooming to death or bondage.”

4. Then Veturia and the children approached and kissed Coriolanus, and all the noble ladies wept and bemoaned their fate. At last Coriolanus cried out, “O, mother! what hast thou done to me!” and he wrung his hands and exclaimed vehemently, “Mother, thine is the victory; Rome is saved, but shame and ruin await thy son.”

5. Coriolanus then, embracing his wife and children, sent them back to Rome, and retreated with his army. He never afterwards made war against his countrymen, but passed his life in exile among the Volscians. Some stories relate that he was killed by them in a popular insurrection, but this seems to be only a romantic embellishment of the history.

CHAPTER XXVI.

Dictatorship of Cincinnatus.



Cincinnatus called from the Plough to take command of the Army.

1. THE attempts of the people to procure the enactment of the *agrarian law*, by which it was proposed to divide the public lands among the whole population, led to violent factions and disturbances. Under these circumstances, the consuls appointed a dictator B. C.

3, 4. What passed between him and his mother? 5 What was the result of the emergency?

458. The person selected was Lucius Quintus, who, on account of his remarkable shock-pate, was called "Cincinnatus," or *curly-head*.

2. This person lived on a farm in the neighborhood of the city, and was ploughing in the field when the deputies came to inform him that he was dictator of Rome. He immediately assumed the authority, and by the wisdom, moderation and justice of his measures, soon restored tranquillity. The agrarian law was postponed, and Cincinnatus retired to his farm.

3. Not long after this, the Æquians broke the treaty which they had made with Rome, invaded the territory of the republic, and intrenched their camp on Mount Algidus. The Romans sent ambassadors to complain of the wrong. Gracchus, the Æquian leader, was a vain-glorious, haughty man, and received them in his tent, which was pitched under the shade of an oak.

4. He answered their remonstrances with mockery. "I am busy," said he, "and cannot hear you; tell your message to this oak tree." One of the Romans immediately answered, "Yea, let this sacred oak hear, and let all the gods hear, how treacherously you have broken the peace!" They went back to Rome, and war was declared.

5. When the Roman army marched out, the crafty Gracchus retreated before them, and they followed him heedlessly till he had led them into a narrow valley with hills on each side, high, steep and bare. He then took possession of the defiles in front and rear of the Romans, and covered the hills right and left with his troops.

6. The Romans thus found themselves decoyed into a trap without the power of advancing or retreating. There was neither food for the men, nor grass for the horses in the valley, and they were in danger of starving. Fortunately for them, however, five horsemen had broken out before the rear was quite closed up, and these escaped to the city with the news of the dangerous condition of the army.

CHAPTER XXVII.

Mount Algidus.

1. UPON this information, the senate all exclaimed, "There is only one man who can save us; Cincinnatus must be dictator." Again this honest farmer was invested with the office. He went first into the forum, and ordered every man to shut his shop. He then stopped the courts of law, and gave directions that no man should attend to his private business till the army was delivered.

2. Every citizen of age to bear arms was next ordered to appear in the Field of Mars before sunset, with provisions for five days, and

XXVI.—1. What was the *agrarian law*? Who was made dictator? 2. How was he called from the plough? 3. What happened with the Æquians? 4. How did Gracchus treat the Roman ambassadors? 5. How did he ensnare the Roman army? 6. How did the Romans send information of this to the city?

XXVII.—1. Who was made dictator? What was done by Cincinnatus? 2. How did

a dozen stout stakes, which the Romans soldiers always used for pitching their camp. The city was now all alive, and the inhabitants in every quarter were cutting down trees and dressing food.

3. At sunset all was ready, and the army left Rome. By midnight they reached Mount Algidus; and Cincinnatus ordered the soldiers to throw down their baggage in a pile, but to keep the stakes. They then formed into a long column and completely surrounded the enemy on the mountain. When this was done, a signal was given, and the whole army set up a tremendous shout.

4. The sound echoed through the camp of the enemy in the dead of the night, and filled them with surprise and terror. The Romans in the valley also heard it, and said one to another, "Our people have come to help us, for that is a Roman hurrah!" So they shouted back again, and began to assail the enemy.

5. In the mean time the Romans without were digging a vast ditch round the mountain, and fencing it with a rampart of stakes and turf. When the morning came, the astonished Æquians found themselves completely enclosed. Unable to escape, they offered Cincinnatus his own terms; and the victorious Romans after stripping their enemies of their arms, baggage, and everything valuable, marched home in triumph.

6. Great was now the joy in Rome. The tables were set out at every door laden with meat and drink, for the soldiers and the people feasted together. Cincinnatus was hailed as the father and protector of his people, and they gave him a golden crown. After he had held the dictatorship a fortnight, he returned again to his plough.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

The Decenvirs.

1. AFTER this the agrarian law again agitated the contending factions. Licinius Dentatus, a plebeian, and a veteran soldier of extraordinary bravery, who had fought in a hundred and twenty battles, and gained all kinds of military honors, pleaded the cause of the people. The law, however, was violently opposed by several young patricians, who broke the balloting-urns and dispersed the multitude that threatened to oppose them.

2. Both the senate and the people at length became weary of these endless disputes, and all parties concurred in the opinion that the existing evils might be removed by the enactment of a body of wholesome laws. Three commissioners were accordingly sent to Greece. B. C. 451, to examine the legal institutions of that country, and select such laws as were suitable to the Romans.

3. After a year's absence, they returned with a large collection of

he collect an army? 3. How did they surround the enemy? 4. What was done by the Romans in the valley? 5. How were the Æquians conquered? 6. Describe the rejoicings at Rome.

XXVIII. — 1. What of Dentatus? 2. What was done to settle the disputes? When

statutes, which being digested into a regular code with some additions, were called the *Laws of the Twelve Tables*; some fragments of these remain at the present day.

4. In order to carry the new laws into effect, ten of the principal senators were appointed with a power equal to that of kings and consuls. These officers were named decemvirs. They discharged their duty with zeal and industry, and at the expiration of the year for which they had been appointed, they were permitted by the senate to continue in office to make some additions to the Tables which were thought necessary.

5. But the decemvirs, having tasted the sweets of power, were unwilling to resign it. Even when no reasonable pretence could any longer be urged, they maintained their office by their own will. They now began to tyrannize over the people, seizing their property and committing various acts of oppression. Great popular discontent was thus excited.

6. In the midst of these intestine troubles, the Æquians and Volscians renewed their hostilities, and advanced within ten miles of Rome. The leading decemvirs took the command of the army, but the Roman soldiers, hating these men, determined to bring them into disgrace. On the approach of the enemy, therefore, they shamefully abandoned their ground and retreated.

7. When this was known at Rome, the blame was thrown upon the generals. Some called out for a dictator, and the veteran Dentatus spoke with openness and freedom of the commanders. Appius Claudius, the principal decemvir, was enraged at this, and marked out the old soldier for destruction.

8. Under pretence of doing him honor, he sent him with a convoy of supplies to the army. The aged hero was received most respectfully at the camp, and was sent with a body of one hundred and fifty men to explore the country. The soldiers who attended him were ordered by Appius to assassinate him.

9. They conducted him into a deep hollow among the hills, and then fell suddenly upon him. The brave old soldier set his back against a rock and fought till he had killed fifteen of his assailants and wounded thirty. He then kept off their javelins with his shield, but was at last crushed by great stones which they threw down upon him from the top of the rock.

10. This piece of treachery was well known at Rome, though Appius attempted to conceal it by procuring a splendid funeral for Dentatus. The decemvirs were now universally hated, and before long another event of a most tragical nature increased this hatred to utter detestation.

were commissioners sent to Greece? 3. What were the twelve tables? 4. What were the decemvirs? 5. How did they exercise their power? 6. How did the soldiers behave in the war with the Æquians and Volscians? 7. What of Dentatus and Appius? 8, 9. What became of Dentatus? 10. What was the consequence of his assassination?

CHAPTER XXIX.

Appius Claudius and Virginia.*Virginius and his Daughter.*

1. APPIUS had conceived a strong passion for Virginia, the daughter of Virginius, a centurion. She was only fifteen years of age, extremely beautiful, and was betrothed to Icilius, formerly a tribune of the people. Appius would have married Virginia had not the laws interdicted marriage between patricians and plebeians. In this situation, he resolved upon the most flagitious measures to gain possession of her person.

2. He bribed one Claudius to claim Virginia as his slave, and to bring the case before his own tribunal. Here Claudius made oath that she was the daughter of his female slave, born in his house, and sold by her mother to the wife of Virginius. The vile decemvir decided in favor of the claim, and ordered Virginia to be given up to Claudius.

3. Just as the lictors were about to lay hands on her, Virginius, who had hastened from the army on the first intelligence of these proceedings, made his appearance in the forum. He saw that his daughter was lost, but pretending to acquiesce in the sentence, he asked leave to take a farewell embrace of his child. This being allowed him, he seized a knife and plunged it into her heart.

4. Virginius, having executed this dreadful deed to save his daughter from slavery and infamy, turned to the affrighted decemvir, and

XXIX. — 1. What of Appius and Virginia? 2. How did Appius attempt to seize Virginia? 3, 4. What was the conduct of Virginius? 5. What was the consequence

brandishing the weapon in the air, exclaimed, "By this blood Appius, I devote thy head to the infernal gods!" Then running wildly through the city, he roused the people to arms. Icilius and his friends held up the bleeding corpse of Virginia to the multitude, and bade them see the work of the tyrant.

5. The whole city was immediately aroused. Appius and his lictors were driven out of the forum, and the decemvir ran into a house to save his life. His colleagues attempted to support him, but the people were too powerful, and the senate was convened to quell the tumult.

6. In the mean time, Virginus had hastened back to the camp, followed by a crowd of people. The sight of his bloody face, and the cries of the citizens, drew the whole army around him. He told his story, and called upon his comrades to avenge him. One common feeling animated them all; they ran to their arms, pulled up the standards, and marched to Rome.

7. When they reached the city, the authority of the hated decemvirs was already at an end. As they marched through the streets, they called upon the commons to assert their liberties, and establish the tribunes of their order. The senate saw that the demands of the people must be satisfied, and ten tribunes were elected from the commons. Appius was thrown into prison, where he died by his own hands.

8. The popular party having secured this triumph, demanded further privileges, and the senate was compelled to pass a law admitting the plebeians to marry with the patricians. A period of tranquillity followed these changes, till a famine occasioned new troubles.

9. Spurius Mælius, a rich merchant, in order to ingratiate himself with the people, bought a large quantity of corn in Etruria, and distributed it among the poor of Rome. Having thus acquired great popularity and influence, he began to aim at sovereign power.

10. He organized a conspiracy to this effect among his followers, but the plot was seasonably discovered. In this critical situation of the republic, Cincinnatus was a third time appointed dictator, when he was eighty years of age.

11. He commanded Mælius to appear before him, and when the latter refused to obey, the dictator sent an officer, who killed him on the spot. The house of Mælius was demolished, and all his property was given to the poor.

In Rome? 6. What in the camp? 7. What became of the decemvirs? What new officers were appointed? 8. What new privilege was granted to the plebeians? What caused new troubles? 9. How did Spurius Mælius acquire influence among the people? 10. What of his conspiracy? 11. What was the end of Mælius?

CHAPTER XXX.

Siege of Vei.

1 THE people of Vei had for a long time given so much annoyance to the Romans, that the latter came at length to a determination not to make peace till they had captured the rival city. They accordingly laid siege to Vei, but the place being exceedingly strong both by nature and art, was enabled to make a long defence.

2. During the summer of the seventh year of the siege, there happened a great drought; the springs and rivers were almost dry. On a sudden the waters of the Alban lake, which lies about twelve miles from Rome, embosomed in high hills, began to swell. They rose above the banks of the lake, and covered the fields and houses, till they reached the tops of the hills, and, overflowing, poured down a torrent into the plains below.

3. The Romans, seeing their fields and country seats thus devastated, put up prayers to the gods and offered sacrifices. But these proving of no avail, they sent to Delphi, in Greece, to ask counsel of the oracle of Apollo, which was then famous in every land.

4. The inhabitants of Vei heard of this catastrophe; and one day an old man of the city was talking from the walls with a Roman sentinel. The latter boasted that his countrymen would soon take the city, but the old man laughed and said, "You will never take it till the lake of Alba is empty."

5. This reply caused a great commotion among the Romans, for they believed the old man to be a prophet. They enticed him out of the city, and took him prisoner. On being questioned closely, he declared it was written in the book of fate just as he had said.

6. When the messengers returned from Delphi, they brought an answer which corresponded with the old man's assertion. The Romans were now convinced that their success depended on the draining of the lake. Accordingly, they sent workmen and dug a tunnel through the rocky hills round the lake, which emptied it of its superfluous waters.

7. This wonderful work, a mile in length, may be seen at the present day. The Romans, now believing they had secured the fates on their side, appointed Camillus dictator, and pressed the siege of Vei more closely than ever. Camillus ordered a mine to be dug under the wall, into the very citadel of Vei.

8. When the operations were finished, but before the further end of the mine was broken through, Camillus sent to Rome, directing all who wished to share in the plunder of Vei to repair to the army.

XXX. — 1. What of the siege of Vei? 2. What happened to the Alban lake? 3. How did the Romans seek for a remedy? 4, 5. What of an old man of Vei? 6. How did the Romans empty the Alban lake? 7, 8. How did they prepare for the capture of Vei?

CHAPTER XXXI

Capture of Veii.

1 **EVERYTHING** being ready, and the besieged entirely ignorant of what had been done underground, Camillus gave orders for a general assault upon the walls, to divert attention from his stratagem. At this moment the king of Veii was in the temple of Juno, in the citadel, offering a sacrifice for the deliverance of the city.

2. The soothsayer who stood by him, when he saw the animal killed, cried aloud, "This is an accepted offering, for victory is certain to him who lays the victim upon the altar." The Romans heard these words underground, and suddenly burst into the citadel, seized the victim, and laid it on the altar. The city was taken, and thus, if all these tales be true, was the prophecy accomplished.

3. Great rejoicings took place at Rome upon this victory. Camillus entered the city in triumph, riding in a chariot drawn by four white horses. Some men thought he was too proud of his achievements, and predicted that his pride would have a fall. But such predictions are often invented after the events, said to have been foretold, have taken place.

4. Camillus afterwards laid siege to the city of Falerii. A school-master, who had the care of the sons of the principal citizens, took the opportunity, when he was walking with his boys outside the walls, to lead them into the Roman camp, and deliver them into the hands of the besiegers.

5. Camillus, indignant at this act of treachery, ordered the school-master's hands to be tied behind his back, and then bade the boys flog him back to town, for "the Romans," he said, "never made war upon children." The Falerians, won by his generosity, surrendered at discretion.

6. Notwithstanding these signal triumphs, Camillus soon experienced the ingratitude of his countrymen. Various charges were brought against him, and as he was unwilling to expose himself to the ignominy of a public trial, he left Rome and went into exile.

7. It is said that as he was going out of the gate, he turned round and uttered a prayer to the gods, that his countrymen might one day be made sensible of his innocence and their own ingratitude. This was soon accomplished, in consequence of the invasion of the Gauls.

XXXI. — 1. How did the attack begin? 2. How was Veii taken? 3. What of Camillus? 4, 5. What happened at the siege of Falerii? 6. How did the Romans treat Camillus? 7. How did he take his leave of Rome?

CHAPTER XXXII.

Invasion of the Gauls.

1. THE Gauls were a branch of the great nation of the Celts, or Kelts, who inhabited, at a very early period of history, all the northern part of Europe to the westward of the Rhine. They were in a state of complete barbarism, having hardly any acquaintance with agriculture or trade, and living on the milk and flesh of their cattle. In manners they were turbulent and brutal, easily excited, but deficient in energy and perseverance.

2. About the period of the last Veientine war, some unknown circumstances appear to have caused a migratory movement among them. One body of these people crossed the Alps, and made an irruption into Etruria. They quickly made themselves masters of the whole plain of the Po; and then crossed the Apennines and laid siege to Clusium, a city of southern Etruria.

3. It was said that a citizen of Clusium was the cause of this invasion. This person, named Aruns, had been the guardian of a Lucumo, or chief man of the city, and having been abused by him, and denied redress by the magistrates, resolved upon revenge. He loaded a number of mules with skins of wine and oil, and with rush mats filled with figs, and carried them across the Alps, into the country of the Gauls.

4. Aruns found the Gauls, as he expected, highly delighted with these presents. They were delicacies unknown to the north of the Alps, and the barbarians were eager to obtain more of them. Aruns assured them that they might easily conquer the land that produced wine and figs, and forthwith an immense host of Gauls arose and marched off with their wives and children into Italy.

5. Their guide led them to Clusium, and they laid siege to that city. The Clusians sent to the Romans for aid. The senate despatched three of the Fabian family to desire the Gauls not to molest the Clusians, who were the allies of Rome. The Gauls replied that they wanted land, and the Clusians must divide their territory with them.

6. The Fabii were angry at the ill success of their interference, and entered the city of Clusium, where they joined the people in arms. By this act they degraded their character as ambassadors, and violated the law of Rome, which declared that no citizen should bear arms against an enemy till war had been formally declared, and he had taken the military oath.

XXXII. — 1. Who were the Gauls? 2. How did they invade Italy? 3, 4. Who was Aruns? How did he entice the Gauls into Italy? 5. What happened at Clusium? 6. What of the Fabii?

CHAPTER XXXIII.

March of the Gauls to Rome.

1. In a sally from Clusium, one of the Roman ambassadors slew a Gallic chief, and as he was stripping him of his armor, he was recognized by the Gauls. Brennus, the king, immediately ordered a retreat to be sounded; and then selecting the stoutest of his warriors, sent them to Rome, complaining of this infraction of the laws of nations by the ambassadors, and demanding that they should be given up to justice.

2. Most of the senators acknowledged the wrong, but they were unwilling to give up men of noble birth to the vengeance of a savage foe. They referred the matter to the people, who instantly created the offenders consular tribunes, and then told the Gallic envoys that nothing could be done with them till the expiration of their office.

3. Brennus, when he received this reply, gave the word "For Rome!" The Gauls were immediately upon their march, breathing vengeance against the violators of national justice. Their horse and foot overspread the plains. They touched not the property of the husbandman; they passed the towns and villages as if they were friends. They crossed the Tiber, and reached the Allia, a little stream which flows into that river, about eleven miles from Rome.

4. It is said they would have taken the city by surprise, had not a supernatural warning been given to the Romans. According to this story, a plebeian, named Cædicius, as he was passing in the night time along the foot of the Palatine Hill, heard a voice more than human, from the adjacent grove of Vesta, calling him by name.

5. He turned to see who had spoken to him, but no one was visible. The voice was then heard again, commanding him to go in the morning to the magistrates and tell them that the Gauls were coming. Upon these tidings, the men of military age were called out, and led against the enemy at the Allia.

6. The Gauls were 70,000 strong; the Romans only 40,000. The latter were divided into two wings, the left resting on the Tiber, the right occupying some broken ground; the Allia was between them and the enemy. Brennus attacked the right wing, and speedily routed it; those in the left, seeing themselves out-flanked, were seized with a panic, broke their ranks, and fled towards the river.

7. The Gauls attacked the fugitives on every side. Great numbers were slain; many were drowned; the survivors, mostly without arms, fled to Veii. Those of the right wing had made the best of their way across the hills to Rome, carrying the news of their defeat. Before night the Gaulish cavalry appeared before the walls; but no attack was made upon the city. During that night and the following day, the Gauls were engaged in plundering and rioting without the walls, and frightening the inhabitants within by singing and shouting.

XXXIII. -- 1. How were the Roman ambassadors discovered? 1. What was done by the senate? 3. What by Brennus? 4, 5. What warning is said to have been given to the Romans? 6, 7. Describe the battle of the Allia?

CHAPTER XXXIV.

Capture of Rome by the Gauls.*Gauls before Rome.*

1. THE Romans found it impossible to defend the city, but they resolved to hold the capitol to the last extremity. About a thousand men took their station there, with a supply of provisions. The remainder of the inhabitants saved themselves as they could. Some fled to the neighboring towns, others dispersed over the country. A part of the sacred objects used in worship were secreted under ground; the Vestal Virgins fled with the remainder to Cære.

2. Nearly a hundred of the aged patricians and magistrates remained in the city, determined not to survive the ruin of the place which had been the scene of all their glory. They clothed themselves in their robes of state, and having devoted themselves with solemn ceremonies to the cause of the republic, they sat awaiting death on their ivory seats in the forum.

3. On the second day after the battle, the Gauls entered Rome. At first, no person was seen, and a deathlike silence prevailed in the streets. But as they entered the forum, they beheld the walls of the capitol covered with armed men, and in the space beneath, the venerable senators seated in order, maintaining a profound silence, as immovable as statues.

4. The barbarous invaders were struck with superstitious awe at the first sight of these persons, whom they took for divinities. At length one of the Gauls put forth his hand and seized the long beard

XXXIV. — 1. How did the Romans provide for their safety after the battle? 2. What
5*

of Marcus Papirius. The old man, resenting this indignity, struck him over the head with his ivory staff, on which the barbarian drew his sword and slew him. This was immediately followed by the massacre of all the other senators.

5. The Gauls then fell to plundering the houses, and the city was soon set on fire. All Rome was consumed, except the capitol and a few houses on the Palatine. They now summoned the capitol to surrender, but the garrison defended themselves bravely. Brennus, finding it impossible to capture the place by assault, blockaded it closely hoping to starve the Romans into a surrender.

6. Meantime some people of Etruria ungenerously took advantage of the distress of the Romans to ravage the Veientine territory, where the Roman peasantry had taken refuge, with what property they had been able to save. But the Romans at Veii attacked them in the night and dispersed them.

CHAPTER XXXV.

Defence of the Capitol.

1. HAVING thus obtained a supply of arms, of which they were so much in want, they prepared to act against the Gauls. A brave youth, named Pontius Cominius, swam one night on corks down the Tiber, and eluding the vigilance of the Gauls, clambered up the steep ascent of the capitol. Having given the requisite information to the garrison, he returned by the way he came.

2. The Gauls, the next day, took notice of a bush on the side of the hill, which had given way as Cominius had grasped it in climbing up. They also observed that the grass was trodden down in various places; this showed that the rock was not inaccessible, and they resolved to scale it.

3. At midnight, therefore, a select body moved in dead silence to the spot, and began to climb, feeling their way slowly and cautiously up the steep side of the hill. No noise was made; the Romans were buried in sleep, the sentinels were negligent or drowsy, and even the dogs, who start at the slightest sound, were not aroused.

4. All went on successfully, and the foremost Gaul had just reached the top, when the sacred geese in the temple of Juno, which in the famine of the siege had been spared by the garrison, being startled, began to flap their wings and scream. The noise awoke Marcus Manlius, whose house stood near the spot. He ran to the place where the Gauls were ascending, and threw the foremost down headlong; in his fall he knocked down the others. The Romans were now aroused, and repelled the assailants.

was done by the patricians? 3. How did the Gauls enter the city? 4. What of Papirius? 5. What was the fate of the city? 6. What was done by the Etrurians?

XXXV. -- 1. What of Pontius Cominius? 2. 3. How did the Gauls attempt to seize the

5 The officer whose negligence had placed the capitol in such peril, was thrown down the rock with his hands tied behind him, and



The Gauls attacking the Capitol.

every man in the citadel gave Manlius half a pound of corn and a quarter of a flask of wine as a reward. This was a liberality of no small account, in the distressed situation of the defenders. In memory of the event, a goose was afterwards annually carried in triumph at Rome, on a soft litter, finely adorned.

6. But famine continued to press upon the Romans; the blockade had lasted six months, and they had nearly eaten up the leather of their sandals and shields. The Gauls, in the mean time, had suffered the bodies of the Romans who were killed to lie unburied, and it being in the heat of summer, a pestilence broke out, which carried off great numbers of the besieging army.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

Departure of the Gauls from Rome.

1. Both parties being now tired of the siege, an agreement was made, that the Gauls should immediately withdraw on the payment of a thousand pounds of gold. This treaty having been sanctioned by an oath on both sides, the gold was produced by the Romans. In weighing it, the Gauls attempted to defraud them, which being complained of by the Romans, the Gallic leader threw his sword into the scale, crying, "Woe to the vanquished!"

capitol? 4. What was done by Marcus Manlius? 5. How was the defence of the capitol rewarded and commemorated? 6. How long did the siege endure?

2. By this reply, the Romans saw that they were at the victor's mercy, and prepared to submit; but while the dispute was going on, news came that Camillus, the Roman general, was at the gates of the city, with a large army for their relief. He soon made his appearance, and demanded the cause of the dispute.

3. On learning the state of affairs, he ordered the gold to be carried back to the capitol. "For," said he, "it has ever been the manner with us Romans, to ransom our country, not with gold, but with iron. I only am the man to make peace, as being the dictator of Rome; and my sword alone shall purchase it."

4. Each side then flew to arms, and a battle was fought on the ruins of Rome. The Gauls were defeated, and a second victory, on the Sabine road, annihilated their army. Camillus entered Rome in triumph, leading Brennus captive. This much-dreaded barbarian leader was put to death, and the only answer to his remonstrances was made in his own words, "Woe to the vanquished!"



Camillus and Romans in battle with the Gauls.

5. Such is the account of the capture and deliverance of Rome, which was generally current among the historians of that nation. It is highly probable, however, that some part of the story has been falsified by the national vanity of the Romans. Instead of being defeated by Camillus, the Gauls, if we may credit more impartial accounts, withdrew peaceably, carrying off the whole of the ransom.

6 The city was now a heap of ruins; the wealth of the inhabitants was destroyed, and all were reduced to great misery. A tradi-

XXXVI. — 1. What ransom was proposed for the Romans? 2. How was the business interrupted? 3. What said Camillus? 4. What was the success? 5. What is the result of this story? 6. What was the condition of the Romans after the Gauls' departure?
XXXV. — 1. 4.

tion relates that food was so scarce among the people, that all who were over sixty years of age were thrown into the river and drowned. The people shrank from the idea of rebuilding the city, and proposed to emigrate in a body to Veii.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

Rebuilding of Rome.

1. AGAINST this project, Camillus raised his voice, and appealed to the Romans, both as men and citizens, not to desert the memorable seat of their ancestors. While the subject was under discussion, a lucky omen, which had perhaps been preconceived for the purpose, decided the irresolute.

2. Just as a senator was rising to speak, a centurion, marching with his company to relieve guard, gave the usual word of command, "Halt! here is the best place to stay." The senators exclaimed, "*A happy omen! The gods have spoken,—we obey.*" The multitude caught the enthusiasm, and cried with one voice, "*Rome forever!*"

3. Under the prudent guidance of Camillus, the military strength of Rome was renewed, and the states which had triumphed in the recent humiliation of the city were forced to own its superiority. But this was a time of internal distress, which was augmented by the harshness and arbitrary conduct of the ruling classes. In this state of things, Manlius, who had saved the capitol, came forward as the champion of the sufferers.

4. This person aspired to be the first man in Rome, and felt mortified at the elevation of Camillus. With this view, he labored to ingratiate himself with the populace, paid their debts, and railed at the patricians. The senate saw through his schemes, and created Cornelius Cossus dictator, with a design to curb the ambition of Manlius. The dictator called Manlius to an account for his conduct, but the latter was too much the idol of the multitude to be affected by such a proceeding.

5. The dictator was obliged to lay down his office, and Manlius was carried from his confinement in triumph through the streets. This success only served to inflame his ambition. He began to talk of a division of the lands among the people, and insinuated that there should be no distinctions of rank in the republic.

6. To give weight to his discourses, Manlius always appeared in public at the head of a large body of the lower orders, whom his liberality had enlisted in his cause. The city being thus filled with sedition and clamor, the senate had recourse to another expedient, which was to oppose the power of Camillus to that of the demagogue.

XXXVII. — 1. What was the opinion of Camillus? 2. How were the Romans influenced by an omen? 3. What was the state of Rome after this? 4. What of Manlius and Cossus? 5, 6. What were the schemes of Manlius?

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

Condemnation of Manlius.

1. CAMILLUS was accordingly made one of the military tribunes, and he appointed Manlius a day to answer for his life. The place of trial was near the capitol, and when he was there accused of sedition, and of aspiring to the sovereignty, he turned and pointed to that edifice, and put the people in mind of what he had there done for his country.

2. The multitude, whose compassion or justice seldom springs from rational motives, refused to condemn him so long as he pleaded in sight of the capitol. But when he was brought from thence to the Peteline grove, where that building could not be seen, they condemned him to be thrown headlong from the Tarpeian rock.

3. Thus the spot which had been the theatre of his glory became that of his punishment and infamy. His house, in which his conspiracies had been carried on, and which had been built for him as the reward of his valor, was ordered to be razed to the ground, and his family were prohibited ever after from bearing the name of Manlius.

4. In this manner the Romans went on, with a mixture of turbulence and superstition within their walls, and successful enterprises without. They submitted to the orders and requisitions of their priests with implicit obedience, and even encountered death itself, at



Marcus Curtius leaping from the Rock.

their command. As an example of this, we may instance the case of Marcus Curtius.

XXXVIII. — 1. What of Camillus and Manlius? 2. What was the fate of Manlius?

5. During an earthquake, a great gulf opened in the forum, and the augurs declared that it would never close till the most precious things in Rome were thrown into it. Curtius arrayed himself in complete armor, mounted his horse, and boldly leaped into the yawning abyss, declaring that nothing was more truly precious than patriotism and military virtue. The gulf, say the historians, closed immediately upon him, and he was seen no more.

6. Shortly after the execution of Manlius, the plague broke out at Rome. This was ascribed by the disaffected people to the anger of the gods at the destruction of the hero who had saved their temples from pollution. But the patricians, by their triumph over Manlius, and their steadiness in opposing popular claims, had acquired such strength that the lower classes became overawed, and the commoners ceased to display the spirit and courage which they had previously shown in their contests with the nobles.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

The Samnite and Latin War.

1. ROME was now on the point of degenerating into a miserable oligarchy, and her name would have come down to us shorn of its ancient glories, had not her decline been arrested by the appearance of two men, who changed the fate of their country and of the world. These were Caius Licinius Stolo, and Lucius Sentius Lateranus.

2. These men were aided in their patriotic labors by Ambustus, a patrician, the father-in-law of Licinius, who is said to have espoused the popular cause to gratify the ambition of a favorite daughter.

3. Licinius brought forward three "rogations," or *bills*, as we should call them in modern legislation. The first opened the consulship to plebeians; the second prohibited any person from occupying more than five hundred acres of public land, and forbade any individual to feed on a common pasturage more than one hundred large or five hundred small cattle; it also fixed the rent of the public land. The third provided that in all cases of outstanding debts, the interest paid should be deducted from the capital in making payment.

4. The patricians resisted the passing of these laws for five years, using every means of force and fraud to frustrate the designs of Licinius. At length the people took up arms, and gathered together on Mount Aventine. Nothing could save the republic now but a dictatorship, and Camillus was intrusted with the office.

5. Camillus saw that concessions must be made to the people, to avert the horrors of civil war. He prevailed on the senate to pass the three laws, amending them only with a provision that the con-

2. What of his house and family? 4. How did the Romans prosper? 5. What happened to Curtius? 6. What of the plague at Rome?

XXXIX. — 1, 2. What was the condition of Rome at this time? Who changed the fate of the republic? 3. What bills were passed by Licinius? 4. What was the consequence? 5. What of Camillus? When were the prætors created? 6. What new was did the Romans now meditate?

suls should no longer act as civil judges, and that new magistrates should be chosen, with the title of *prætors*, to exercise judicial functions. This arrangement, B. C. 366, settled all affairs for the time amicably.

6. The Romans had now triumphed over the Sabines, the Etrurians, the Latins, the Hernici, the *Æqui*, and the Volsci, and began to look for still greater conquests. They accordingly turned their arms against the Samnites, a people descended from the Sabines, and inhabiting a large tract of Southern Italy, which is now comprised in the kingdom of Naples.

CHAPTER XL.

Titus Manlius.

1. VALERIUS CORVUS and Cornelius Cossus were the two consuls first intrusted with the management of this war. Valerius was one of the greatest commanders of his time. He was surnamed *Corvus*, or the "crow," from the strange circumstance of his once having been assisted by a crow, while engaged in combat with a Gaul of gigantic stature, whom he killed in battle.

2. The Samnites were the bravest men whom the Romans had yet encountered. Cornelius led an army directly to Samnium, the enemy's capital, while Valerius marched to relieve Capua, a city of Campania, which was threatened by the Samnites. The fortune of Rome prevailed. After an obstinate conflict in the field, the Samnites fled, declaring that they were not able to withstand the fierce looks and fire-darting eyes of the Romans.

3. A war with the Latins followed soon after. These people were so similar to the Romans in language, dress, arms, &c., that the greatest caution was necessary to avoid mistaking enemies for friends, in an engagement. Orders were therefore issued by Manlius, the Roman commander, that no soldier should leave his ranks, on pain of death.

4. Both armies were drawn up in face of each other, ready for battle, when Metius, the Latin general, pushed forward from his lines, and challenged any knight in the Roman host to meet him in single combat. For some time there was a general pause, no soldier daring to disobey orders, till Titus Manlius, son of the general, burning with shame to see the whole Roman army intimidated, boldly rode forward and faced the challenger.

5. The soldiers on both sides stood still to witness the engagement. The two champions drove their horses against each other with a terrible shock. Metius wounded the horse of his antagonist in the neck; but Manlius killed the horse of Metius. The Latin

XL. — 1. Who were the consuls in this war? 2. What was the success of the Romans? 3. What of the war with the Latins? 4, 5. What was done by Titus Manlius? 5. What was his fate? 7. How did the soldiers behave?

general, thrown to the ground, attempted for a while to support himself upon his shield ; but the Roman followed up his blows, and laid him dead as he was endeavoring to rise.

6. Manlius returned to the ranks in triumph, and laid the spoils of his victory at his father's feet. The stern Roman addressed him thus : " Titus Manlius, as thou hast regarded neither the dignity of the consulship nor the commands of a father — as thou hast destroyed military discipline and set an example of disobedience, thou hast reduced me to the deplorable extremity of sacrificing either my son or my country. Lictor, bind his hands, and let his death be an example to the Romans in future."

7. At this cruel mandate the whole army was struck with astonishment, and stood in mute surprise. But when they saw their young champion's head struck off, and his blood streaming on the ground, a scream of horror ran through their ranks. The dead body of Manlius was carried forth without the camp amid the wailings of the soldiery, and was buried with military honors.

CHAPTER XLI.

Devotion of Decius.

1. AFTER the funeral obsequies of Manlius, the battle between the Latins and Romans began with great fury, and as the two armies had often marched under the same leaders, they fought with all the animosity of a civil war. Their courage was equal, but after some time the left wing of the Romans, commanded by Decius, began to give ground.

2. Previous to the battle, the augurs had foretold that the Romans would prevail if the commander of that portion which was hard pressed by the enemy should devote himself as a sacrifice for his country. Decius now saw that the time was come for the fulfilment of this prediction, and he resolved to offer himself.

3. He therefore called out to Manlius, who was chief pontiff, and demanded his instructions as to the ceremonies of the act. By the pontiff's directions, he was clothed in a long robe, his head was covered, and his arms stretched forward ; in this manner, standing upon a javelin, he pronounced the solemn words devoting himself to the celestial and infernal gods, for the safety of Rome.

4. Then arming himself and mounting his horse, he drove furiously into the midst of the enemy, carrying terror and confusion wherever he came, till he fell, covered with wounds. The Latins, struck with superstitious awe, began to give way ; the Romans pressed them on every side, and caused them a complete overthrow. So great was the carnage, that scarcely a fourth part of the Latins survived.

XLI. — 1. What of the battle between the Romans and Latins? 2. What did the augurs foretell? 3, 4. How did Decius devote himself? 5. How did the Romans succeed? 6. What was done by the other nations? 7. How did they succeed?

5. The Romans followed up their success with so much spirit during the three ensuing campaigns, that all Latium and Campania were subdued, and annexed as provinces to the Roman republic.

6. These important advantages gained by their rivals alarmed the Samnites. Many also of the other states in Southern Italy, particularly the Lucanians and Tarentines, became jealous of the rising greatness of Rome, and a coalition was formed among them. The Romans became sensible of their danger, and appointed Papirius Cursor dictator.

7. Under this leader the Romans gained several victories over the Samnites; and these successes being improved by the general that succeeded Papirius, the enemy were reduced to such extremity that they begged for a truce, which was granted.

CHAPTER XLII.

The Caudine Forks.

1. THE Samnites, as is usual with a populace when their own deeds have brought them into misfortune, threw all the blame on their leader. This person was named Brutulus, and his countrymen having resolved to deliver him up to the Romans as the cause of the war, the noble Samnite saved himself from this disgrace by a voluntary death.

2. Nevertheless, the corpse of Brutulus was carried to Rome, the prisoners whom the Samnites had taken in battle were given up, and gold was sent to Rome to ransom the Samnite captives. But nothing could bend the haughty arrogance of the Roman senate, who were determined to reduce their rivals to complete subjection.

3. The Samnites, rather than resign their national independence, resolved to dare and endure everything. Pontius, an able general, was placed at the head of their army, and bade defiance to the Roman power. The consuls, Veturius and Postumius, immediately took the field with a large force, and invaded the territories of Samnium, B. C. 320.

4. The crafty Pontius put in practice a well-contrived stratagem. He sent ten of his soldiers, disguised as shepherds, to throw themselves in the way of the Roman army. The latter meeting them, inquired what route the Samnite forces had taken. The pretended shepherds answered, with seeming indifference, that they had marched to Luceria, a town of Apulia, and were then actually besieging it.

5. The Roman general, fully crediting this false intelligence, advanced boldly and incautiously. Near the town of Caudium he reached a narrow defile between two woody mountains, called the Caudine Forks. The Romans entered this passage, but when the

XLII.—1. What of Brutulus? 2. What was the determination of the Romans? 3. When did the war recommence? 4, 5, 6. How did the Samnites entrap the Romans at the Caudine Forks? 7, 8. What was the fate of the Roman army?

head of their column reached the further end of the cefile, they found their way stopped by trunks of trees and rocks.

6. They then faced to the right about, and attempted to return by the way they came, but found the entrance closed in the same manner, and looking round them saw the woods and hills occupied by the enemy's soldiery. To their great consternation they perceived that they were caught, as it were, in a trap, without the power of advancing or retreating.

7. The Samnites thus having the Romans entirely in their power, forced them to terms. It was stipulated that the Romans should withdraw entirely from the territory of the Samnites, and that the two nations should continue to live upon the terms of their former confederacy. The Roman army was compelled to submit to the ignominy of "passing under the yoke."

8. This was done by setting up two spears, with a third across them at the top. Under this every man of the army passed, having been stripped of all his arms and clothes except a single garment. The Romans, disarmed, half naked, and burning with shame at this dishonor, found a refuge in the city of Capua, an ally of Rome.

CHAPTER XLIII.

Arrival of Pyrrhus in Italy.

1. WHEN the discomfited Romans reached their own city, the inhabitants were overwhelmed with grief, indignation, and shame. All business was suspended; and while the unfortunate soldiers slunk out of sight in their own houses, or dispersed themselves over the country, a new levy of forces was ordered. The consuls laid down their office, and new ones were appointed.

2. The treaty was disavowed by the senate, and the consuls who had signed it were sent bound to Pontius, that he might wreak his vengeance upon them. But the Samnite general spurned such poor satisfaction, and demanded that either the whole Roman army should again be placed in his power, or the treaty be observed with good faith.

3. The Romans disregarded these proposals, and the war was carried on for many years. The power of the Samnites declined every day, while that of the Romans gained fresh vigor from each new victory. The Samnites being now hard pressed, determined to call to their assistance a foreign power. They therefore applied to Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, a country of Greece, lying on the eastern shore of the Ionian Sea.

4. Pyrrhus was a man of great courage, ambition, and military skill, who had always kept the example of Alexander before his eyes, and was desirous of becoming a universal conqueror. He

XLIII — 1. What of the discomfited Romans? 2. How did the senate behave respecting the treaty? 3. Whom did the Samnites call to their aid? 4. What of Pyrrhus? Cineas? 5. What of the arrival of Pyrrhus and his army? 6. What of Tarentum?

promised the Samnites that he would take the field in person against the Romans, and in the mean time he despatched in advance a body of three thousand men, under Cineas, one of his most experienced generals, to join the Samnites, B. C. 279.

5. Pyrrhus followed shortly after, with a force of twenty thousand foot, three thousand cavalry, and twenty elephants, the first that had ever been seen in Italy. Only a small part of this armament landed in safety, a storm having scattered the fleet and sunk many of the ships. Pyrrhus landed at Tarentum, in the south of Italy, that city having put itself under his protection, in fear of the Romans.

6. Tarentum was one of the most luxurious cities of antiquity. The inhabitants were almost constantly occupied in feasting, dancing, and other amusements. Pyrrhus, finding them in utter neglect of everything pertaining to the business of war, gave orders to shut up all the places of public entertainment, and to prohibit the citizens from all such amusements as rendered soldiers unfit for battle.

CHAPTER XLIV.

War with Pyrrhus.

1. In the mean time the Romans did all that prudence could suggest, to meet this formidable enemy. The consul Lævinus was despatched with a large army to the south. Pyrrhus sent an ambassador, desiring to mediate between the Romans and the Tarentines; but Lævinus answered that he neither esteemed him as a friend nor feared him as an enemy.

2. Both armies now advancing, soon came in sight of each other, and pitched their camps on the banks of the river Liris. As Pyrrhus viewed the Roman camp, he remarked that the *barbarians* seemed to exhibit nothing of the barbarian character in their tactics. At that period the Greeks were accustomed to bestow this name upon all people but themselves.

3. The object of Pyrrhus was to prevent the Romans from passing the river; but their cavalry out-manœuvred him, and gaining a ford higher up, enabled the whole army to cross. Pyrrhus then led on his Thessalian horse; but the Romans stood their ground. He next advanced with his infantry. Seven times did the troops on each side advance and recede, without deciding the conflict.

4. Pyrrhus now brought his elephants into action. The sight of these strange animals struck both horses and men with terror, and the Romans broke their ranks. The Thessalian cavalry then charged and scattered them, and the rout was general. The remnant of the Roman army fled to Venusia.

5. When Pyrrhus on the following day viewed the field of battle, he cried, "Had I such soldiers as the Romans, the world would be

XLIV. — 1. What of Lævinus? 2. What took place at the Liris? 3, 4. What of the Romans? 5. What was the remark of Pyrrhus? 6. What of the embassy of Cineas? 7. What of the embassy of Cineas? at the Caudine. —

mine, had the Romans such a general as I, the world would be theirs!" He ordered the bodies of the Roman slain to be burned and buried like his own men.

6. Notwithstanding this victory, Pyrrhus was still unwilling to drive the Romans to extremities, and sent his friend, Cineas, the orator, with proposals of peace. This person was so skilful a negotiator that Pyrrhus often asserted he had won more towns by the eloquence of Cineas than by the swords of his soldiers. But, with all his art, he found the Romans inflexible.

7 Cineas informed his master that Rome looked like a great temple, and the senate an assembly of kings. While he was there two legions had been raised to reinforce Lævinus, and volunteers had crowded with the utmost eagerness to enlist.

CHAPTER XLV.

Embassy of Fabricius.

1. An embassy was soon after sent from Rome to negotiate with Pyrrhus about an exchange of prisoners. At the head of this deputation was Fabricius, an ancient senator, who had long been a pattern to his countrymen for his contentment amid poverty. Pyrrhus received them with great kindness, and to try the integrity of the old senator, offered him rich presents; but these were refused.

2. The next day Pyrrhus ordered one of his largest elephants to be placed behind a curtain, which at a signal was drawn, and discovered the animal raising his trunk over the Roman's head in a threatening manner. Fabricius stood unterrified, and then turning to the king, said, "Neither your gold yesterday nor your big beast to-day can move me."

3. Pyrrhus was gratified to find so much integrity and firmness in a barbarian, and as a mark of his regard, he released all the Roman prisoners, on the promise of Fabricius that if the senate should determine to continue the war, he might reclaim them if he thought proper.

4. In a short time the Romans began to recover from the effects of their defeat. The panic occasioned by the elephants passed away, and a large Roman army again took the field. A battle was fought near Asculum; but the Romans, after a desperate resistance, were forced to give way, leaving six thousand men dead on the spot. Pyrrhus, however, had met with such loss in the battle that he exclaimed, "Another victory like this, and I am undone!"

5. The next season the campaign was opened with equal vigor on both sides. While the two armies were approaching each other, a

XLV. — 1, 2. How did Pyrrhus put Fabricius to trial? 3. What was his treatment of Fabricius? 4. Describe the battle of Asculum. 5. What of the plot to poison the king? 6. How did Pyrrhus behave to the Romans?

letter was brought to Fabricius from the physician of Pyrrhus, offering to poison the king for a proper reward. The honest old Roman was fired with indignation at this treacherous proposal, and immediately suggested in the senate that information of it should be sent to Pyrrhus, which was accordingly done.

6. The king received the message with amazement at the magnanimity of his enemies, and exclaimed, "Admirable Fabricius, it would be as easy to turn the sun from his course as thee from the path of honor." He despatched Cineas to Rome with his thanks, and sent home all his prisoners with clothing and presents. The Romans, however, refused to make peace, unless Pyrrhus would quit Italy.

CHAPTER XLVI.

Defeat of Pyrrhus.

1. PYRRHUS now passed over to Sicily, and in about two years made himself master of nearly the whole island. During his absence, the Romans retrieved their affairs. His allies solicited him to return, and he again took the field against the Romans, B. C. 274, with an army of 20,000 foot and 3,000 horse.

2. Part of this force he sent into Lucania, against the consul Lentulus. With the remainder he advanced to engage the other consul, Curius Dentatus, who was encamped near Beneventum, in Samnium, in a strong position, on a height, where he intended to await the arrival of his colleague.

3. It was the intention of Pyrrhus to attack him at daybreak, with some picked troops and elephants. A dream terrified him, and he wished to abandon the project; but his officers represented the impolicy of allowing the two armies of the enemy to unite, and he gave orders for the attack.

4. In order to reach the heights in the rear of the Roman camp, the troops of the king were compelled to make a circuitous march through a thick forest, by torchlight. They lost their way in the wood, their torches burnt out, and it was broad day when they reached the spot where they were to assail the Romans.

5. The battle began, but the troops of Pyrrhus being fatigued with their long march, could not stand against the fresh Romans. The consul descended into the plain to engage the main army, and put one wing to flight. But in the other wing the Romans were driven back to their camp by the elephants. Here, however, the tide of victory was turned.

6. The Romans having discovered that nothing terrified the elephants so much as fire, had provided abundance of arrows headed with tow, and balls compounded of tar, wax and rosin; these were showered in a blaze upon the animals, who turned in affright upon

XLVI. — 1, 2. What were the next movements of Pyrrhus? 3. What of the dream of Pyrrhus? 4, 5. What of the battle? 6. How were the elephants frightened?

their own ranks, and threw them all into disorder. The rout was complete, and the camp of Pyrrhus was taken.

7. This victory served as a lesson to the Romans, who were ever on the watch for improvement. They had formerly pitched their tents without order, but by this new capture they were taught to measure out the ground, and fortify the whole with a trench, so that many of their subsequent victories are to be ascribed to their improved method of encamping.

8. Pyrrhus now utterly despaired of prevailing against the Romans, he therefore abandoned the Tarentines to their fate, and returned to Epirus with the remains of his shattered forces. The Tarentines, who were the original cause of the war, could not long resist the conquering career of the Romans, who, in the course of the succeeding nine years, established their dominion over all the south and east of Italy.

CHAPTER XLVII.

Progress of the Roman Commonwealth.

1. THE people conquered by the Romans, in general, retained all their lands in full possession, paying no land-tax. But in some cases a portion of their territory was converted into Roman public land, and assigned to colonists, or farmed by the Romans. The conquered people were governed by their own laws and magistrates; but they were compelled to supply troops for the Roman armies, and pay them.

2. About this time, Appius Claudius, surnamed Cæcus, or the Blind, distinguished himself, during his office of censor, by the construction of the celebrated Appian Way, which, when completed, was three hundred and sixty miles in length, extending from Rome to Brundisium. It was paved the whole distance with square blocks of stone. He likewise built the first aqueduct at Rome.

3. Something like literature and oratory also begins to be visible at this time. Brief dry chronicles of public events were kept; the funeral orations made on men of rank were preserved in their families. It seems to have been the custom to sing the praises of illustrious men at feasts and banquets. Ballads of Romulus and Remus formed the entertainment of the common people. None of these old poems have been preserved, but it is supposed that Livy incorporated many of them in his Roman history.

4. About this period Cneius Flavius gained a great popularity by two acts which were highly beneficial to the people. The *dies fasti*, or days on which courts sat, and justice was administered, had been

7. What did the Romans learn by this victory? 8. How did the war with Pyrrhus end?

XLVII.—1. How did the Romans treat the conquered nations? 2. What of the Appian Way? 3. What of Roman literature? 4, 5. What benefits were conferred on the people by Cneius Flavius?

hitherto divided in a very perplexing way through the year, and people could only learn them by consulting the pontiffs.

5. Flavius made a calendar in which the nature of each day was marked; this he hung up in the forum, and thus saved the common people much trouble and loss of time. He also drew up and published a collection of all the legal forms in civil actions, by which the business of law-suits was much simplified.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

Foundation of Carthage.

1. THE Romans, having overthrown all their rivals in Italy, began to look abroad for further conquests. The Carthaginians were then in possession of a part of Sicily, and, like the Romans, only wanted an opportunity of embroiling the different states of that island with one another, to conquer the whole. But before we enter upon the history of the memorable wars between Rome and Carthage, we must give some particulars respecting this latter nation.

2. Carthage was a colony of the Phœnicians, founded on the northern coast of Africa, near the spot where Tunis now stands, about a century before the foundation of Rome. This colony was believed to have been led from Phœnicia by Elisha, or Dido, sister of the king of Tyre. A spot of land, under payment of tribute, was obtained from the aboriginal inhabitants of the country, and a town was erected there, which rapidly increased in wealth and population.

3. The Carthaginians gradually freed themselves from tribute, then reduced the neighboring tribes, and extended their dominion along the Mediterranean coast of Africa, from Cyrene nearly to the Atlantic. They also subjugated the Balearic Isles and Sardinia, and made settlements on the northern coast of Sicily.

4. The constitution of Carthage is highly praised by Aristotle. It was like those of the most flourishing commercial states of antiquity, a mixture of aristocracy and democracy. The former was composed of the families of greatest wealth and influence; and from these all the chief officers of state were selected, who served without salary. The senate was constituted much like that of Rome; and there were two chief magistrates, called *suffetes*, like the Roman consuls.

5. The Carthaginians were a very enterprising, commercial people, and their ships ventured out of the Mediterranean into the Atlantic. They made trading voyages along the western coast of Africa, to many parts of Spain, and, it is said, to the British Isles.

6. The troops of Carthage were chiefly mercenaries, hired in Africa, Spain, Gaul, and Italy. The Carthaginians were remarkably sparing of the blood of their own citizens; but they lavished that of their mercenaries with reckless prodigality.

XLVIII. — 1. What new enemy did the Romans seek? 2. What of the foundation of Carthage? 3. What of the progress of the Carthaginian power? 4. What was the government of Carthage? 5. Commerce? 6. Armies?

CHAPTER XLIX.

*First Punic War.**

1. WHEN Xerxes invaded Greece, the Carthaginians took advantage of that circumstance to attack the Greek states of Sicily, but in this attempt they suffered a most disastrous defeat from Gelon, king of Syracuse. This, however, did not deter them from new endeavors to extend their dominion in the island, where they carried on wars for more than a century, till at length they were brought into collision with the rising power of Rome.

2. Hiero, king of Syracuse, B. C. 264, engaged the Carthaginians to assist him in a war with the Mamertines, a powerful and ferocious band of Italian mercenaries, who had seized the city of Messina. These, on the other hand, put themselves under the protection of Rome. It was some time, however, before the Romans were willing to acknowledge these disreputable allies, but finding at length that the Carthaginians had got possession of the citadel of Messina, they prepared for war.

3. Thus began what is called the First Punic War. A Roman army eluded the vigilance of the Carthaginian fleet, and landed on Sicily. Messina fell into their hands; successive victories over the Syracusans and Carthaginians soon procured allies for the Romans among the Sicilian states, and inspired them with the hopes of becoming masters of the whole island.

4. Hiero now deserted his old allies, and forming a treaty with the Romans, secured the tranquillity of his kingdom in the coming contest. The Carthaginians, on the other hand, who looked upon Sicily as their own, were filled with rage at the intrusion of the Romans. They hired a vast number of mercenaries in Gaul, Liguria and Spain and formed a grand military and naval station at the city of Agrigentum, in Sicily.

5. The Romans, eager to possess the Carthaginian magazines, immediately laid siege to Agrigentum, notwithstanding its great natural and artificial strength, and defeated an immense army that had been sent to its relief. The garrison, in despair, abandoned the city, which, with all its valuable military stores, fell into the hands of the Romans.

6. Several of the towns in the interior of Sicily now surrendered to the Romans, but those on the coast stood too much in awe of the Carthaginian fleet, to follow their example. The coast of Italy also suffered from the Carthaginians, for their navy had the entire command of the sea.

XLIX.—1. What of the Carthaginians in Sicily? 2. What of the Mamertines? 3. How did the First Punic War begin? 4. What of Hiero? 5. What became of this city? 6. What further success had the Romans?

* Punic is the Latin word for Carthaginian. The people of this nation were called *Pœni* by the Romans.

CHAPTER L.

Naval Victory of Duilius.

1. THE Romans now saw that they must meet the Carthaginians on their own element, if they wished to prevail. But they had no ships of war, nor any model by which to construct one. Under such circumstances, almost any people but the Romans would have yielded to obstacles which appeared insurmountable, but nothing could discourage or intimidate them.

2. They began to construct a navy, and an accident at this time came to their assistance. A Carthaginian ship of war was driven ashore on the southern coast of Italy, and served them for a model. In sixty days' time they built a fleet of one hundred and thirty ships. Meantime, stages had been erected, on which the sailors, rowers, and fighting men were taught the manœuvres to be practised on shipboard. Every obstacle was surmounted by perseverance.

3. But the Romans knew, at the same time that they were inferior to their enemy in naval experience, and that their main chance of success was in fighting hand to hand, as on shore. To accomplish this, they invented a machine for boarding, called a *crow*. In the fore part of each ship they set up a mast with a pulley-wheel at the top, by which was suspended a long ladder, furnished with a sharp iron hook at the outer end. This ladder was to be raised on approaching the enemy's ship, and let fall upon her deck; being thus grappled fast, the boarders could rush from deck to deck by the ladder.

4. The consul Duilius was the first commander who ventured to sea with this armament. When the Carthaginians saw him, they put to sea with a hundred and thirty ships, confident of victory. So much did they despise their enemy, that they did not take pains to form in order of battle. At the strange sight of the *crows*, they were somewhat puzzled, but soon advanced and attacked the Romans.

5. The crows were dropped, and the Carthaginian ships were boarded by their enemies before they had time to understand this new mode of naval warfare. Forty-four ships were taken or sunk. Three thousand of the Carthaginians were killed, and seven thousand taken prisoners.

6. The account of this unexpected victory was received at Rome with unbounded exultation. A column, decked with the *rostra*, or beaks of the captured ships, was erected in the forum, and Duilius was permitted, for the rest of his life, to have a torch carried before him, and to be preceded by a flute-player, when he returned home from a feast.

L.—1. What is said of ships of war? 2. How did the Romans prepare a fleet? 3. What machine did they invent? 4, 5. What success had Duilius? 6. What was done by the Romans in consequence?

CHAPTER LI.

Regulus invades Africa.*Regulus.*

1. SEVERAL other naval victories followed that of Duilius. The Carthaginians assembled at Lilybæum a fleet of three hundred and fifty ships, carrying a hundred and fifty thousand men, probably the greatest naval armament that the ancient world ever witnessed. The Romans collected at Messina three hundred and thirty ships, with a hundred and thirty-nine thousand men. These two immense squadrons encountered each other off Lilybæum, B. C. 255.

2. The Romans were commanded by the consuls Regulus and Manlius, the Carthaginians by Hanno and Hamilcar. An action took place, but the fleets separated without a decided victory on either side. The Romans returned to Sicily to refit. They then sailed for Africa, it having been determined to carry the war into the enemy's country.

3. The Carthaginian fleet being too weak to oppose them, they

LI. — 1. What was the magnitude of the Roman and Carthaginian fleets at Lilybæum? 2. What was the event of this battle? 3. What of the invasion of Africa by the

anded safely near Cape Bon, and captured the town of Clupea. The country from this place to the city of Carthage was like a garden, abounding in cornfields, vineyards, and beautiful country-seats of the rich citizens of the capital. The Romans pillaged and devastated this lovely region, subjecting it to all the horrors of war.

4. The Carthaginians recalled their general, Hamilcar, from Sicily, and he met the Roman army, under the consul Regulus, near the river Bagrada. While the latter lay encamped on the banks of this river, they are said to have encountered an enormous serpent, one hundred and twenty feet in length, which drove the soldiers away when they went to the stream for water.

5. It was found necessary to employ the balista, and other military engines, against him; by these he was at length killed. His skin and jaw-bones were sent to Rome, where they were preserved in one of the temples for many years afterwards.

6. A battle between the two armies now took place, and the Carthaginians were defeated, with the loss of seventeen thousand men killed, and five thousand men and eighteen elephants taken. Regulus followed up his advantage, and captured seventy-five towns, ravaging the country in every quarter.

7. The Numidian allies of the Carthaginians revolted, and all the country-people fled into the city, which soon began to suffer from famine. In this distress, the Carthaginians, destitute of generals at home, sent to Sparta, and offered the command of their armies to Xantippus, a general of great experience.

8. He began by giving instructions to the magistrates for levying their troops, assuring them that their armies had been overthrown, not by the strength of the Romans, but by the ignorance of their own commanders.

CHAPTER LII.

Embassy of Regulus to Rome.

1. By the exertions of Xantippus, the Carthaginians were roused from their despondence, and a respectable army was soon raised, with which he took the field. He made the most skilful disposition of his forces, placing his cavalry on the wings, and the elephants at proper intervals behind the line of heavy-armed infantry. Then bringing up the light-armed troops in front, he directed them to discharge their missiles and retire through the line of the infantry.

2. In this manner he engaged the Romans, and after a severe battle, defeated them with dreadful slaughter. The greater part of their army was destroyed, and Regulus himself taken prisoner. Other misfortunes at the same time fell upon the Romans. They

Romans? 4. What of the serpent at the Bagrada? 5. How was he killed? 6. What was the success of Regulus? 7. What was done by the Carthaginians in their misfortunes? 8. How did Xantippus begin his operations?

LII.—1. What was the success of Xantippus? 2. What misfortunes happened to the

lost their fleet in a storm, and thus the enormous wealth which had been acquired by the plunder of the Carthaginian territory was swallowed up by the waves.

3. Agrigentum was taken by Carthalo, the Carthaginian general, and a new fleet, which was built shortly afterward, shared the fate of the first one. The Carthaginians, seeing their enemy thus humbled, began negotiations for peace, through the instrumentality of Regulus. They had kept him four years in imprisonment, and flattered themselves that, weary of his bondage and exile, he would exert himself for a pacification.

4. He was accordingly sent with their ambassadors to Rome, on his promise to return, if the negotiation proved unsuccessful. When the old general approached the gates of Rome, numbers of his friends came out to meet him. Their acclamations resounded through the city, but Regulus refused, with settled melancholy, to enter the gates.

5. In vain was he entreated to visit once more his little dwelling, and share in the joy which his return inspired. He persisted in saying that he was now a slave, belonging to the Carthaginians, and unfit to partake in the liberal honors of his country.

6. The senate assembled outside the walls, as usual, to give audience to the ambassadors. Regulus opened the business as he had been instructed by the Carthaginian council, and the ambassadors confirmed his statements. The senate themselves, who were weary of a war which had now continued for fourteen years, were inclined to peace. But when Regulus was called upon to speak, he astonished every one by giving his voice for the continuance of the war.

CHAPTER LIII.

Death of Regulus.

1. THE Romans pitied and admired the man who had spoken with such eloquence against his private interest, and were unwilling to resolve upon a measure which was to be his ruin. But Regulus relieved them from their embarrassment by breaking off the negotiations abruptly, and without embracing his family or taking formal leave of his friends, he returned immediately with the ambassadors to Carthage.

2. As the Roman historians relate the story, the Carthaginians were wrought up to the most furious indignation, when they heard the conduct of Regulus, and determined to punish him with the most barbarous torture. His eyelids were first cut off, and he was immured in a dark dungeon; then he was taken out and exposed with his face to the burning sun. At last, when the malice of his enemies was

Romans? 3. What was done by the Carthaginians to procure a peace? 4. How was Regulus received at Rome? 5. How did he behave? 6. What advice did he give to the senate?

LIII.—1. What of the return of Regulus to Carthage? 2. What is the story of his

fatigued with studying all the arts of torture, they threw him into a cask set with sharp spikes, where he died in prolonged agonies.



Regulus in Prison at Carthage.

3. Regulus no doubt ended his days a prisoner at Carthage, but there is reason to believe that he died a natural death, and that the story of his torture was invented by the Romans as a pretext for the barbarity with which they afterwards treated the Carthaginians.

4. Both sides now took up arms with increased animosity. The Romans were defeated in many battles, and had the Carthaginians possessed the steady resolution and perseverance of their enemies, they would have crushed them effectually. The consul P. Claudius Pulcher, attacked Drepanum, in Sicily, with a fleet of a hundred and twenty-three ships. He hoped to surprise the place by sailing in the night, but it was daybreak when he arrived, and the Carthaginian admiral, Adherbal, had time to sail out of the harbor and meet him.

5. The consul's contemptuous disregard of religious auspices had a disheartening effect upon his men. The sacred chickens would not take their food, which was regarded as an ill omen. "*If they will not eat, let them drink,*" said the consul, and ordered them to be thrown into the sea.

6. A battle begun with what was thought an act of impiety, could not be prosperous; the Romans were totally defeated, and the consul escaped with only thirty-three ships. Shortly afterward the Romans lost another fleet in a storm, and of a hundred and twenty men-of-war and eight hundred transports laden with stores, not one was saved. After this disaster, the Roman senate encouraged the people to fit out privateers.

death? 3. What is the probable truth? 4. How was the war prosecuted? 5. What of Claudius Pulcher and the chickens? 6. What was the result of the battle which followed?

CHAPTER LIV

End of the First Punic War.

1. But no misfortunes could overcome the inflexible perseverance of the Romans, and their renewed exertions at last turned the tide of war. Fabius Buteo once more showed them the way to naval victory, by defeating a considerable squadron of the Carthaginians. Lucius Catulus, who commanded a fleet built and equipped by the private subscriptions of some patriotic individuals, gained a still more important victory, in which the Carthaginian naval power was almost annihilated by the loss of one hundred and twenty ships.

2. The Carthaginians were at length compelled to sue for peace, and the terms exacted by the Romans were the same which Regulus had offered at the gates of Carthage. The Carthaginians agreed to pay one thousand talents of silver for the expenses of the war, and twenty-two hundred within ten years; to give up Sicily and all the islands near it; to abstain from making war with any of the allies of Rome, and from sending any ship of war into any part of the Roman dominions; lastly, all prisoners and deserters were to be delivered up without ransom.

3. In this manner ended the First Punic War, B. C. 241. The Romans suffered immense losses in this struggle of twenty-four years. Seven hundred of their ships of war were taken or destroyed; the population of the republic and her allies was greatly diminished, and the enormous property taxes that were imposed during this period caused great distress. Extensive sales of land for the purpose of raising money, gave origin to that enormous inequality of wealth which afterwards proved so pernicious to the state.

4. The temple of Janus was now shut for the second time since the foundation of the city. The Romans, being in friendship with all nations, had leisure for turning their attention to the arts of peace. They began to relish poetry, the first liberal art which rises in every civilized nation, and the first also that decays.

5. Hitherto they had been entertained only with rude ballads, similar to those of Chevy Chase and Robin Hood, or with the boorish drolleries called Fescennine verses. They now invented graver compositions, of a satirical character; after which they imitated the drama of the Greeks. Elegiac, pastoral, and didactic compositions began soon to appear in the Latin language.

LIV. — 1. Who restored the fortune of the Romans? 2. On what terms was peace concluded? 3. What was the result of the First Punic War? 4. What was the condition of the Romans after this? 5. What of their literature, &c.?

CHAPTER LV

Illyrian and Gallic War.

1. THE next hostilities of the republic were directed against the Illyrians, a people inhabiting the eastern coast of the Adriatic. These had plundered some Roman traders; the senate sent ambassadors to the Illyrian queen, complaining of the act; but instead of granting redress, she ordered them to be murdered. A war ensued, most of the Illyrian towns were captured, and the greater part of the country was made tributary to Rome.

2. The Gauls were the next nation visited by the Roman army. These barbarians, finding the armies of the republic disbanded, made a sudden irruption into Etruria. They wasted everything with fire and sword, and advanced to within three days' journey of Rome. An army was quickly raised and despatched against them.

3. The Romans, who had wonderfully improved in the science of war since their first encounters with these people, easily surrounded the Gallic army. It was in vain that these hardy barbarians, who had nothing but their courage to protect them, formed two fronts to oppose their adversaries. Their naked bodies and undisciplined forces were unable to withstand the shock of an enemy completely armed, and skilled in military evolutions.

4. A dreadful conflict ensued, in which forty thousand Gauls were killed, and ten thousand taken prisoners. Another defeat, where Viridomarus, the Gallic king, was killed by the hand of Marcellus, the Roman consul, forced the nation to beg for peace. The dominion of the republic now extended over the whole of Italy, Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, Illyria, and Corcyra, and the towns on the coast of Epirus.

5. But while the Romans were thus extending their sway in Italy and its neighborhood, the Carthaginians were equally active in strengthening their power in the west. They had made peace solely because they were exhausted by the length of the war, and therefore took the earliest opportunity of breaking the treaty.

6. They laid siege to Saguntum, a city of Spain, in alliance with Rome. Ambassadors were sent by the Roman senate to Carthage, complaining of this breach of the peace, and demanding that Hannibal, the general who had advised the measure, should be delivered up. This being refused, the Second Punic War began, B. C. 219.

LV. — 1. What of the Illyrian war? 2. The Gauls? 3, 4. What success had the Romans against them? 5. What of the Carthaginians? 6. How did the Second Punic War begin?

CHAPTER LVI.

Commencement of the Second Punic War, 218, B. C.*Hannibal.*

1. THE Carthaginians intrusted the management of the war to Hannibal. This extraordinary man had been the sworn foe of Rome from his childhood ; his father having carried him to the altar when very young, and caused him to take an oath never to hold friendship with the Romans, nor to desist from opposing them, till he or they should be no more.

2. Hannibal was one of the greatest military commanders that ever existed. His courage in meeting danger was equalled by his presence of mind in every vicissitude and chance of battle. No fatigue was able to subdue his body, nor any misfortune to break his spirit. He was esteemed alike by his generals and the troops whom he commanded.

3. At twenty-five years of age he took the command of the Carthaginian army in Spain, and having overrun the whole country, and captured Saguntum, he determined to carry the war into Italy. As-

sembling an army of ninety thousand foot, twelve thousand horse and thirty-seven elephants, at New Carthage, he committed the government of Spain to his brother, Hasdrubal, and marched toward the Alps with the greater part of his forces.

4. When he reached the Rhone, he found a large army of Gauls drawn up on the opposite bank to dispute his passage. The difficulty of transporting the elephants across the stream threatened a fatal delay, as a Roman army was also approaching by rapid marches.

5. Hannibal, by a skilful manœuvre, overcame this difficulty. He sent a detachment to cross the stream higher up, under cover of the night, with orders to attack the Gauls in the rear, on a signal being given. Everything being prepared, he gave the sign, and began to pass the stream.

6. The Gauls rushed down to oppose him, but soon saw their camp behind them in flames, and after a short resistance turned and fled. The Roman army then crossed the Rhone.

7. The elephants, dreading the water, could not be compelled to enter boats; they were therefore conveyed across by the following artifice. Floats, or rafts of timber, covered with earth, were prepared and joined to the river's margin. The animals, deceived by their appearance, took them for firm ground, and suffered themselves to be led upon them. The floats were then set loose and towed across by boats.

8. Having marched one hundred miles up the east bank of the Rhone, Hannibal wheeled to the right, and directed his course to the foot of the Alps, over which he was to explore a new passage to Italy.

CHAPTER LVII.

Hannibal's Passage of the Alps.

1. It was almost winter when this desperate project was undertaken, and the season gave it additional horrors and difficulties. The tremendous height and steepness of the mountains, capped with snow that seemed to rest among the clouds; the mountaineers, of barbarous and fierce aspect, dressed in skins, with long shaggy hair, presented a picture that struck every spectator with terror and astonishment.

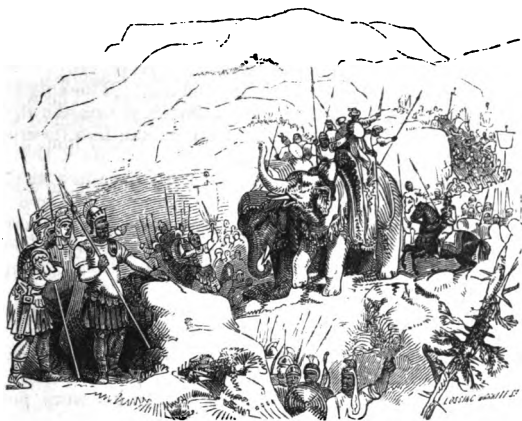
2. The Gauls attacked the Carthaginian army with showers of stones among the narrow defiles of the mountains, and rolled down great rocks upon them from the precipices. Vast numbers of men, horses and elephants, were lost before the army escaped from these dangers. On the ninth day they reached the summit of the Alps, where they halted two days to rest.

3. Here a great fall of snow, and the prospect of further difficulties, disheartened the soldiers; but Hannibal, by pointing out to them

did he take? 2. What was his character? 3. How did he begin the war? 4, 5, 6. How did he cross the Rhone? 7, 8. How were the elephants carried over?

LVII. — 1. What of the Alps? 2. The march of Hannibal's army? 3. What took

the rich plain of the Po, and assuring them of the facility of the conquest of Italy, raised their spirits, and they recommenced their march.



Hannibal crossing the Alps.

4. The difficulties now increased ; the new-fallen snow had covered up the paths, and they lost their way ; great numbers fell down precipices and were killed. At last they found their course stopped by a rock, almost perpendicular, which shelved down one thousand feet in depth.

5. They pitched their camp here amidst the deep snow, and the next day set to work to cut a passage through the rock. This was done by making large fires of wood on the rock till it was heated red hot, and then quenching it with vinegar.

6. In this manner the solid stone was split into fragments, and a passage was opened through which the whole army passed, and at length reached the open country on the southern side of the mountains. Fifteen days in all were spent in crossing the Alps ; the route was probably the passage now known as that of Mont Cenis.

7. Hannibal having mustered his forces, found that he had lost one half in passing the mountains ; the remainder consisted of twenty-six thousand men, Africans and Spaniards.

8. When the news of this invasion of Italy reached Rome, an army under Scipio was sent to oppose him. They met near the river Ticinus, and the Romans were compelled to retreat, with considerable loss. Hannibal, thus victorious, took the most prudent precautions to increase his army, sparing the possessions of the Cisalpine Gauls, and plundering those only of the Romans ; the country people, therefore, flocked to his standard with great alacrity.

Place on the top of the Alps ? 4. How was the march of the army stopped ? 5, 6. How did the Carthaginians split the rocks ? Where did they cross the mountains ? 7. What was the loss of Hannibal ? 8. What success had he afterwards ?

CHAPTER LVIII.

Campaign of Hannibal in Italy.

1. THE consul Sempronius was now recalled from Sicily, and another Roman army took the field against Hannibal. The river Trebbia was the scene of the next engagement. The wily Carthaginian, knowing the impetuosity of the Romans, detached a thousand cavalry, each trooper carrying a foot-soldier behind him, to cross the river and ravage the enemy's territory.

2. This, as he had foreseen, provoked the Romans to a battle; the Carthaginians, pretending a panic, fled to the river. The Romans pursued them across the stream, which was swollen by a heavy fall of rain. It was a cold, winter morning, and the Romans had been roused from their sleep to fight at the first alarm, without taking their breakfasts.

3. When they had waded across the river, and were benumbed by the intense coldness of the water, they were suddenly encountered by the whole of the Carthaginian army, drawn up and prepared for their reception. The Romans, chilled, hungry and fatigued, could not maintain their ground against fresh troops, but were put to a complete rout. Twenty-six thousand of them were killed or drowned in the river.

4. A body of ten thousand were all that survived; these, finding themselves surrounded on every side, broke desperately through the enemy's ranks, and fought retreating, till they found shelter in the city of Placentia. Hannibal, after this victory, led his troops into winter quarters.

5. Early the next spring he attempted to cross the Apennines, but a violent tempest of thunder, hail, wind and rain, obliged him to desist. Another battle was fought near Placentia, in which the Romans were defeated.

6. Hannibal then took up his march for the south, through a region full of marshes. Four days and three nights were consumed in wading amid mud and water; the men suffered every hardship. Hannibal lost one of his eyes, and almost all the beasts of burden perished. At length he reached Etruria, where the consul Flaminius lay encamped to meet him.

7. Hannibal, having learned the character of this commander, who was vain, rash, and altogether unskilled in military affairs, determined to bring him to an engagement before he could be reinforced by the arrival of his colleague. He therefore moved onward to the south, laying waste the country.

8. Flaminius, enraged at the sight of these devastations, was eager to come to blows. Hannibal retreated before the Romans till he had decoyed them into a narrow pass between the hills of Cortona and lake Trasymenus.

LVIII. — 1. Who commanded the Romans at the battle of Trebbia? 2, 3. Describe the battle. 4. What was the result? 5. What of Hannibal's attempt to cross the Apennines? 6. What of his march to Etruria? 7. How did he provoke Flaminius to battle? 8. To what place did he decoy him?

CHAPTER LIX.

Battle of Thrasymentus.

1. **HERE** the Carthaginian general placed his troops in ambush, so that the Romans were hemmed in between the enemy and the lake before they suspected their danger. An accident favored the stratagem of the Carthaginians on this occasion. As the Romans entered the valley early in the morning, a thick fog rose from the lake and filled the lower part of the valley.

2. Thus the Romans were unable to see their enemies, or even their own line of march, while the Carthaginians on the hills were in the sunshine. Never was a military stratagem more successful. On a signal given, the Carthaginians rushed down from the hills and fell upon their enemy in front, flank and rear.

3. The Romans, not having time or space to form in order of battle, were cut down in columns, and their total defeat was speedily accomplished. Fifteen thousand were killed or driven into the lake and drowned. Flaminius was among the slain. Six thousand were made prisoners, and ten thousand saved themselves by dispersion and flight.

4. During this battle a dreadful earthquake took place, which destroyed many cities, overturned mountains, and stopped rivers in their courses; but such was the fury of the combatants, that not one of them was sensible of this great convulsion of nature.

Such the storm of battle on that day,
And such the fury whose convulsion blinds
To all save carnage, that beneath the fray
An earthquake rolled unheededly away.
None felt stern nature rocking at his feet,
And yawning forth a grave for those who lay
Upon their bucklers for a winding sheet.
Such is th' absorbing hate when warring nations meet.

BYRON.

5. The people of Rome were quite overwhelmed at the catastrophe of Thrasymentus, but the senate remained unmoved and resolute. They appointed Fabius Maximus dictator. He was a man of great courage, but with a happy mixture of caution. He saw that the only way of obtaining any advantage over the enemy was by harassing and fatiguing them, without coming to a decisive battle.

6. For this purpose he always encamped upon the highest grounds, inaccessible to the enemy's cavalry. Whenever they moved, he watched their motions, straitened their quarters, and cut off their provisions. By these arts Fabius acquired the name of Cunctator, or the Delayer.

LIX. — 1. How were the Romans situated at the battle of Thrasymentus? What accident favored the Carthaginians? 2. How did the battle begin? 3. What was the result? 4. What remarkable event happened during the battle? 5. What was done at Rome? 6. What was the conduct of Fabius?

CHAPTER LX.

Fabius Maximus.

1. Pursuing this cautious system of tactics, Fabius at length enclosed Hannibal among the mountains, where it was hardly possible for him to escape. The Carthaginian, however, rescued himself by one of those stratagems which only men of prompt resources can invent.

2. He procured two thousand oxen, and fastening bundles of brushwood to their horns, set them on fire at night, and drove them toward the heights occupied by the Romans. The oxen, tossing their heads and running wildly up the heights, seemed to fill the whole forest with fire.

3. The Roman sentinels and outposts, that were stationed to guard the mountain passes, seeing such a body of flames advancing towards them, fled in consternation. By this stratagem Hannibal drew off his army, and escaped through the defiles, though with considerable loss to his rear guard.

4. Fabius, still pursuing the same cautious policy, followed Hannibal in all his movements; but before long he was recalled to Rome. On his departure from the army, he gave strict orders to Minucius, who held the command in his absence, not to hazard an engagement.

5. The latter disregarded these orders. He quitted the strong position on the hills which had been occupied by Fabius, and descending to the plains, engaged the enemy in some slight actions with success. These advantages were greatly exaggerated at Rome, and the people, who were weary of the salutary caution of Fabius, were induced to pass a decree establishing Minucius on an equality of command with the dictator.

6. Fabius made no complaint, but on returning to the camp divided the army with his colleague. Each now pursued his own separate plan, and Hannibal, by skilful manœuvres, was soon enabled to draw Minucius into an engagement, where his troops would have been cut off to a man, had not Fabius sacrificed his private resentment to the public good, and hastened to their relief.

7. Minucius candidly acknowledged his fault, and the whole army encamped together again. On the expiration of his year of office Fabius withdrew from the command of the army, and his place was supplied by Terentius Varro, a man of mean origin, with nothing but his wealth and self-conceit to recommend him.

8. The associate of Varro in the command was Æmilius Paulus a man of quite different character, experienced in the science of war cautious in action, and imbued with a thorough contempt for his colleague. The Roman army was now ninety thousand strong, and the commanders determined to try the fortune of war with Hannibal, who was encamped near Cannæ, in Apulia.

LX. — 1. How were the Carthaginians ensnared by Fabius? 2, 3. How did Hannibal extricate himself? 4. Who took command of the Romans on the departure of Fabius? 5. What was done by Minucius? 6. What took place on the division of the army? 7. Who finally succeeded Fabius? 8. What resolution was adopted by Varro and Æmilius Paulus?

CHAPTER LXI.

Batt' of Cannæ.*Hannibal at Cannæ.*

1. As the Romans approached, Hannibal took a position bringing the wind in his rear, which at that season blowing constantly one way, and carrying with it great clouds of dust from the parched plains behind, he knew must greatly distress the advancing enemy.

2. The Carthaginian forces amounted to but sixty thousand. The consuls, on their arrival in sight of Hannibal's army, agreed to take the command on alternate days. Æmilius commanded on the first day, and judged it prudent not to attack the enemy.

3. But the next day, Varro, without asking advice of his colleague, gave the signal for battle, and crossing a branch of the river Aufidus, that ran between the two armies, put his forces in array. The battle began with the light-armed infantry, the horse engaged next, but being unable to stand against Hannibal's Numidian cavalry, the legions came up to support them.

4. The action now became general. The Romans attempted in vain to break the centre of their enemy's line, where the Gauls and Spaniards were stationed. Hannibal, observing this, ordered part of those troops to give way, and allow the Romans to advance till they were surrounded.

5. A chosen body of Africans then fell upon their flanks, and as they could make no effectual resistance, they were cut down, in the language of the old historian, "like ripe corn before the reaper."

LXI. -- 1. How were the two armies situated at the battle of Cannæ? 2. How were the Romans commanded? 3. How did the battle of Cannæ begin? 4, 5, 6. Describe

Varro made a desperate effort to remedy his fatal error; but the Africans, who were fresh and vigorous, easily maintained their advantage over his wearied soldiers.

6. At length the rout became general throughout the Roman ranks, the boasts of Varro were no longer heard. Æmilius fell bravely fighting, and his colleague escaped to Venusia with only seventy horse.

7. This was the greatest defeat that the Romans ever sustained; fifty thousand men were killed on their side, and among these were so many knights, that it is said Hannibal sent to Carthage, as trophies, three bushels of gold rings, taken from their fingers.

8. When the tidings of this terrible disaster reached Rome, the inhabitants were overwhelmed with consternation; but the senate, as usual, remained unshaken. By the advice of Fabius, measures were taken for preserving tranquillity in the city. A general mourning of thirty days was appointed, and all public and private religious rites were suspended.

9. Fabius Pictor, who wrote the earliest Roman history, was sent to consult the oracle of Delphi. Recourse was also had to the Sybilline books, and by their directions two Greeks, a man and a woman, were buried alive in the ox-market. Such was the influence of superstition in this alarming conjuncture.

10. Marcus Junius was appointed dictator. All the citizens of age to bear arms were enrolled, and many of the slaves volunteered their services. The weapons and arms taken in former wars, which were hung up as trophies in the temples and porticoes, were now taken down and put to active use.

11. Hannibal has been censured by military critics for not marching to Rome immediately after the battle of Cannæ; but his army was by no means adequate to the siege of the city, and the allies of the Romans would have been able to cut off his supplies.

CHAPTER LXII.

Battle of the Metaurus.

1. HANNIBAL, desiring to repose and recruit his army, after the fatigues of the campaign, led them into winter quarters at Capua. This city had long been regarded as the abode of luxury, and the corruption of all military virtue. A new scene of pleasure now opened to his barbarian troops, and they at once gave themselves up to rioting and debauchery. Thus the hardy veterans became enervated, and when called again into the field, were no longer equal to the fatigues of war.

the battle. 7. What was the result? What trophy did Hannibal send to Carthage? 8. What was done at Rome? 9. Who was sent to Delphi? What ceremonies were performed at Rome? 10. Who was appointed dictator? What preparations were made for defence? 11. What is said of Hannibal's conduct?

LXII. — 1. What happened to the Carthaginians at Capua? 2. What were the next

2 Hannibal's first loss was at the siege of Nola, where the Romans made a successful sally. He next attempted to raise the siege of Capua, and attacked the Romans in their trenches, but was repulsed with considerable loss. He then marched toward Rome, but finding a superior army ready to receive him, he was compelled to retire.

3. For some years he continued to carry on the war without gaining any important success. The senate of Carthage came at length to a resolution of sending his brother Hasdrubal to his assistance, with a body of forces drawn from Spain.

4. Hasdrubal's march being known to the Romans, the consuls Livius and Nero marched against him. A great battle was fought on the Metaurus, a river of Italy, flowing into the Adriatic, B. C. 207. The Roman army consisted of forty-five thousand men; that of Hasdrubal exceeded sixty thousand.

5. Victory, as at the battle of Cannæ, declared for the weaker side; and Hasdrubal, who had performed all the duties of an able general, seeing that the day was lost, spurred his horse into the midst of the enemy, and fell covered with wounds. Fifty-six thousand of the Carthaginians were killed.

6. Hannibal had long expected his brother's army with impatience, and on the very night when he had been assured of his arrival, Nero, with his victorious army, reached Hannibal's camp, and ordered the head of Hasdrubal to be thrown into it over the rampart.

7. The Carthaginian general, struck with the sight, exclaimed, "*I see the doom of Carthage.*" He then retreated to the south of Italy, being resolved to act only on the defensive. Soon after this, the Romans alarmed the Carthaginians with the prospect of a war in Africa, by entering into an alliance with Masinissa, king of Numidia.

CHAPTER LXIII.

Capture of Syracuse. — Scipio's Wars in Spain.

1. WHILE the war was going on in Italy, the Romans, under the command of Marcellus, were besieging Syracuse, in Sicily. The city was defended by the ingenuity of the famous mathematician, Archimedes, who invented machines that destroyed the Roman ships, and for a long time baffled all their attempts to capture the place.

2. Treachery, however, enabled the besiegers to gain possession of many of the important outworks of the city, and at length the inhabitants surrendered at discretion. Syracuse was pillaged by the Roman soldiery, and great numbers of the people were put to the sword.

3. During the pillaging, a soldier entered the room where Archi-

movements of Hannibal? 3. What was done by the senate of Carthage? 4, 5. Describe the battle of the Metaurus. 6. What was done with the head of Hasdrubal? 7. What were the next steps taken by Hannibal?

LXIII. — 1. Who besieged Syracuse? Who defended it? 2. How was the city taken?

moder was deeply engaged in a mathematical problem, and not knowing who he was, killed him. This catastrophe caused much grief to Marcellus, who admired his genius, although it had been exercised against himself.

4. A love for science had already begun to prevail at Rome, and many of the most eminent citizens of the republic were proud of being the patrons of art and literature. Marcellus ordered Archimedes to be honorably buried, and a tomb to be erected to his memory. The numerous paintings, statues, and other works of art, found in Syracuse, were sent to Rome to adorn that capital.

5. The Romans were not equally fortunate in Spain, where two of their armies were defeated and cut to pieces by the Carthaginians. At length Scipio, afterwards called Africanus, was sent to that country, where his father had been killed at the head of his army.

6. Although only twenty-four years old, Scipio, in the course of five years, restored the Roman supremacy in Spain, and on his return to Rome was made consul. He now formed a plan to carry the war into Africa, and make the Carthaginians tremble for their own capital.



Triumphal Entrance of Scipio Africanus into Rome.

7. He landed with an army in that country, B. C. 202, and defeated a body of Numidians, putting forty thousand of them to the sword. He then laid siege to Utica. The Carthaginians raised a large army to relieve a place of so much importance, but they were routed with great slaughter, and pursued to their very walls.

8. This victory exposed Carthage itself to the perils of a siege. Tunis almost within sight of the city, opened its gates to the Romans, and the Carthaginian senate, driven to extremities, recalled Hannibal from Italy, to the defence of his own country.

3. What of the death of Archimedes? 4. What was the conduct of Marcellus? 5. What happened in Spain? 6. What plan was formed by Scipio Africanus? 7. What were his first successes in Africa? 8. What was done by the Carthaginians?

CHAPTER LXIV.

Battle of Zama.—End of the Second Punic War.

1. NOTHING could exceed the regret and mortification of Hannibal at this order; but he obeyed with the promptness and submission of the meanest soldier. He took leave of Italy with the deepest grief, after having held dominion over the finest parts of that country for fifteen years. On his arrival at Leptis, in Africa, he began his march for Adrumetum, where numerous volunteers awaited him.

2. Urged by the pressing requests of the citizens of Carthage, he now advanced to Zama, a town about five days' march to the west of that city. Here he sent three spies to explore the Roman camp. These were taken, and carried before Scipio, who ordered them to be led through every part of the camp, and then dismissed in safety.

3. Hannibal, struck by this conduct, which evinced, on the part of the Roman general, such confidence in his own strength, proposed a personal interview, in hopes to obtain favorable terms of peace from him. The two generals met on the following day.

4. Hannibal began the conference by expressing his wish that the one people had never gone out of Africa, or the other out of Italy, their natural dominions. He reminded Scipio of the instability of fortune, referring to himself as a notable instance. And he concluded by offering, on the part of Carthage, to cede Spain, Sicily, Sardinia, and all the other islands, to the Romans.

5. Scipio replied that victory or unconditional submission alone remained for Carthage. The conference thus terminated, and each general retired to prepare for the conflict.

6. Never was a more important battle fought, whether we regard the generals, the armies, the two contending powers, or the empire that was at stake. Hannibal had the advantage in numbers, but they were mostly raw levies; only a portion had served in Italy, and could vie in steadiness and discipline with the troops of Scipio.

7. The battle began with the elephants on the side of the Carthaginians. These, at the first onset, were terrified by the shouts of the Romans, and wounded by their slingers and archers. They quickly turned on their drivers, and made confusion in their own ranks, particularly among the cavalry.

8. This advantage was followed up by the Romans, and the whole Carthaginian army was soon put to the rout. Twenty thousand were killed, and as many taken prisoners. The Romans lost only two thousand. Hannibal, who had done all that a great general could do to gain the victory, fled with a few horsemen to Adrumetum, fortune seeming to delight in confounding his ability, his valor, and his experience.

9. From this place he was summoned by the government to Car

LXIV.—1. What of Hannibal's leaving Italy? 2, 3. What took place at Zama? 4, 5. What of the conference of Hannibal and Scipio? 6. How were the forces balanced at the battle of Zama? 7. How did the battle begin? 8. What was the result?

thage, and he returned to that city after an absence of thirty-six years. The battle of Zama had destroyed the last hopes of Carthage, and by Hannibal's advice a peace was made. The vanquished people submitted to whatever conditions their conquerors were pleased to impose.

10. The Carthaginians gave up all their territories out of Africa, agreed to pay ten thousand talents in fifty years; to give up all their ships and elephants except ten; to restore to the Numidian king all the lands which they had taken from him, and not to make war without the consent of the Romans. Thus, after a duration of seventeen years, ended the Second Punic War: B. C. 201.

CHAPTER LXV.

Conquest of Greece by the Romans



For the copy

Philip of Macedon.

1. ROME had now become a great military republic, supreme in eastern Europe, and commanding a preponderating influence in the

9. What followed at Carthage? 10. What were the terms of peace at the close of the Second Punic War.

east, where the kingdoms formed from the fragments of Alexander's empire had sunk into weakness from the exhaustion of mutual wars.

2. The Athenians, exposed to the attacks of Philip, king of Macedonia, sought the protection of the Romans, which was readily granted, as the senate had long been anxious to find a pretext for meddling in the affairs of Greece.

3. War was declared against Philip, notwithstanding the opposition of the tribunes of the people; and it was resolved to follow up Scipio's policy, by making the enemy's country the theatre of hostilities.

4. An army was sent into Macedonia, under Quintus Flaminius, and a decisive battle was fought at Cynoscephalæ, in Thessaly, B. C. 197. The Macedonians were irretrievably overthrown, and forced to submit to such terms of peace as the conquerors chose to dictate.

5. At the Isthmian games, which took place shortly afterward, the Roman commander issued a proclamation declaring the freedom of those states of Greece which had been under the Macedonian dominion.

6. This, however, was nothing more than an empty rhetorical flourish, the crafty Romans being well aware that the most certain way to establish their own supremacy was to amuse the Greeks with high-sounding professions. In fact, these people virtually became slaves to the Romans, through gratitude for freedom.

7. Antiochus, king of Syria, next became involved in a war with the Romans. Hannibal was believed to have contributed by his intrigues to this event, which is not unlikely. That great general, however, found that the vain-glorious Syrian king was unable to comprehend his prudent plans for carrying on the war, and moreover had the mortification to find himself suspected of being secretly in league with the Romans.

8. Antiochus, after much ill success, attempted to obtain a peace by offering to give up all his territories in Europe, and all those in Asia which preferred the alliance of Rome. But it was now too late.

9. The two Scipios, who commanded the Roman armies, forced him to a battle at Magnesia, near Ephesus, where he was totally defeated. He was compelled to purchase a peace by abandoning all his European possessions, and those in Asia north of Mount Taurus, paying an indemnity of fifteen thousand Eubæan talents, nearly fifteen million dollars, and promising to give up Hannibal, who was then at his court.

LXV. — 1. What was now the condition of Rome? 2. How did the Romans become involved in the affairs of Greece? 3. What was the policy of the war with Philip? 4. What of the battle of Cynoscephalæ? 5, 6. What happened at the Isthmian games? 7. What of Antiochus? 8. What success had he? 9. How did he obtain a peace?

CHAPTER LXVI.

Death of Hannibal.

1 HANNIBAL, finding the vindictive Romans resolved on his destruction, left the dominions of Antiochus by stealth, and after wandering for some time from one petty state to another, took refuge with Prusias, king of Bithynia. But the Romans felt no safety while the great Carthaginian leader was alive.

2. With a mean and revengeful spirit utterly unworthy of a great nation, they sent one of their generals to demand him of this king. Prusias, fearing their resentment, and expecting to conciliate their friendship by this breach of hospitality, ordered a guard to be placed upon Hannibal, with an intent to deliver him up.

3. The unfortunate old general, thus implacably persecuted from one country to another, and finding all means of escape cut off, determined to die. He, therefore, swallowed the poison which he had long carried with him for this purpose, and reproaching the Romans for their degeneracy, and Prusias for betraying his guest, expired B. C. 183.

4. It is said that Scipio Africanus, his conqueror, died the same year, an instance also of the mutability of fortune, for this great general breathed his last in exile! The actions of these two eminent men sufficiently declare their characters.

5. As a general, Hannibal is almost without an equal. Not a single military error can be charged upon him; and the skill and address with which he managed to keep an army, composed of the most discordant elements constantly in obedience, is truly astonishing.

6. The charges of perfidy and cruelty, made against him by the Roman writers, are utterly groundless, and contradicted by facts. Nowhere does Hannibal's character appear so great as when, after the defeat of Zama, he, with unbroken spirit, applied the powers of his mighty mind to the reform of political abuses, and the restoration of the finances, in the hope of once more raising his country to independence. Here he showed himself a true patriot.

7. A second Macedonian war was soon after proclaimed against Perseus, the successor of Philip. This prince, in order to secure the crown, had murdered his brother Demetrius, and on the death of his father he succeeded to his power.

8. At first he obtained several important successes over the Romans, but when Paulus Æmilius took the command against him, his affairs began to decline. At length a decisive battle was fought at Pydna, B. C. 167, and the Romans were completely victorious.

LXVI. — 1. Where did Hannibal take refuge? 2. How did the Romans persecute him? 3. What was his end? 4. What of the death of Scipio Africanus? 5, 6. What is the character of Hannibal? 7. What of the second Macedonian war? 8. What success had Perseus? 9. What became of him? What were the consequences of his defeat?

9. Perseus attempted to save himself by escaping into Crete, but being abandoned by every one, he was obliged to surrender to his enemy, who carried him to Rome, and led him captive at his triumph. By this victory, Macedonia, Epirus and Illyricum, were reduced to the condition of Roman provinces, and it became evident that the independence of the remaining Grecian states would not long be respected.

CHAPTER LXVII.

Cato the Censor.

1. AFTER the close of the Second Punic War, the Carthaginians seemed disposed to remain at peace; but the ambition of their neighbor Massinissa, king of Numidia, whose life, to their misfortune, was extended to beyond ninety years, would not allow them to rest. This monarch was continually encroaching on the Carthaginian territory, and seizing their towns.

2. The Roman senate, when appealed to as umpire, sent out commissioners, who almost invariably decided in favor of Massinissa. On one of these occasions, M. Porcius Cato, who is commonly known as Cato the Elder, acted as a commissioner.

3. When he saw the fertility of the Carthaginian territory, its high state of culture, and the strength, wealth and population of the city, he became apprehensive that it might yet endanger the supremacy of Rome.

4. His vanity, also, of which this morose old moralist had a large share, was wounded because the Carthaginians, who were manifestly in the right, did not at once acquiesce in the decision pronounced by him and his colleagues; and he returned to Rome full of bitterness against them.

5. From this time he made a practice of concluding all his speeches to the senate with these words, "*Delenda est Carthago*," "Carthage must be destroyed." One day he carried to the senate-house a number of fresh African figs, and shook them out of his cloak while the general attention was directed towards him. The senators admiring the fruit, he exclaimed, "The country that produces these, s but three days' sail from Rome!"

6. By such artful tricks, he kept alive among the Romans the memory of the Punic wars, and the danger of Rome. At length the senate resolved to lay hold of the first plausible pretext for declaring war against their ancient enemy.

7. At first the Carthaginians attempted to disarm their vindictive persecutors by submission. They banished all their citizens who had incurred the displeasure of the Romans, and surrendered their arms

LXVII. — 1. What new enemy annoyed the Carthaginians? 2. How were the disputes with Massinissa decided? 3. What of Cato the Elder at Carthage? 4. How was his enmity excited against the Carthaginians? 5. How did he display his enmity? 6. What was the consequence of this? 7. How did the Carthaginians attempt to appease the Romans? 8. What did the Roman senate determine?

and military stores. Two hundred thousand suits of armor, and weapons in proportion, were brought in wagons to the Roman camp.

8. The consul Censorinus, having praised their diligence and ready obedience, then proceeded to inform them of the will of the senate. This was that they should abandon Carthage, which the Romans intended to level with the earth, and build another town not nearer to the sea than ten miles.

CHAPTER LXVIII.

Third Punic War.

1. WHEN this cruel command was announced, the unhappy Carthaginians abandoned themselves to every extravagance of grief and despair. They rolled themselves in the dust, tore their garments, beat their breasts, called upon the gods, and reproached the Romans for their treachery and cruelty. When they recovered from these paroxysms, they took courage from despair, and set their insulting foes at defiance. Then began the Third Punic War, B. C. 149.

2. They prepared vigorously for the defence of their city, resolving to endure every extremity rather than abandon it. The two Hasdrubals were appointed generals. The temples and other sacred places were turned into workshops. Men and women labored day and night in the manufacture of arms, and the females cut off their long hair that it might be twisted into bow-strings.

3. From this unexpected display of courage and patriotism, the Romans found Carthage a more difficult conquest than they had anticipated, and during the first and second years of the war, they suffered many reverses. But in the third year they intrusted the command of their armies to Scipio Æmilianus.

4. He formed a camp within a dart's cast of the wall of the city, which extended quite across the isthmus on which Carthage was built. By this means, he cut the besieged off from the land, and their only chance of obtaining supplies was by sea. But Scipio determined to deprive them of this resource also, by stopping up the mouth of the harbor.

5. He began to construct a huge mole from shore to shore, with large stones. The Carthaginians at first mocked at the efforts of their enemies, but when they saw how rapidly the work advanced, they became alarmed, and instantly set about digging another passage out of the port.

6. They labored so constantly and secretly, that the Romans were frustrated in their attempt, and the besieged, having built new ships out of their old materials, sent a fleet of fifty vessels to sea by the new channel. Had they taken advantage of the surprise and con-

LXVIII — 1. How were the Carthaginians affected by the orders from Rome? 2. How did they prepare for defence? 3. How was the war carried on? 4. How did Scipio Æmilianus begin his operations? 5, 6, 7. How was the port of Carthage besieged and defended?

sternation of the Romans, who were utterly unprepared for the sudden turn of affairs, they might have attacked and destroyed their fleet.

7. But they only made a bravado, and then returned to port. The third day after this, the fleets engaged. The Carthaginian small vessels annoyed the Romans exceedingly, but in returning to port they created much confusion on their own side, of which the Romans took great advantage. The next morning Scipio attacked the quay where the Carthaginian vessels lay. After a desperate struggle, the Romans at length effected a permanent lodgment on the place.

CHAPTER LXIX.

Capture of Carthage.

1. ON the opening of the spring the besiegers made a vigorous attack on the inner harbor. The Carthaginians set fire during the night previous to the buildings on one side, expecting the assault in that quarter. But a strong party of the Romans secretly approached on the opposite side, and made themselves masters of the place, while the attention of the defenders was directed to a different point.

2. Scipio then advanced to the great market, where he kept his men under arms during the night, and the next morning proceeded to attack the citadel, to which most of the inhabitants had now fled for refuge. Three streets, filled with houses six stories high, led to the citadel from the market.

3. The Romans, as they attempted to penetrate them, finding themselves assailed from the roofs, burst into the houses, and pursued the Carthaginians from roof to roof, killing and throwing them down from the battlements. Others, in the mean time, forced their way along the streets. Weapons flew in all directions; the groans of the wounded and dying, the shrieks of women and children, and the shouts of the victors, filled the air. At length the assailants arrived in front of the citadel, and Scipio gave orders to set the city on fire behind them.

4. A dreadful scene of horror and devastation ensued. Carthage was wrapped in flames, and its wretched inhabitants, between fire and the enemy, were devoted to destruction. Old men, women, and children, driven by the devouring element from their dwellings and hiding-places, perished by thousands, and every form of appalling misery now shocked the eye.

5. For six days the flames raged uncontrolled. On the seventh, the Carthaginians in the citadel offered to surrender on condition of their lives being spared. This being granted to all except deserters, they came out to the number of fifty thousand. The deserters,

LXIX. — 1. How was the inner harbor taken? 2, 3. How did the Romans reach the citadel? 4. What terrible spectacle was here presented? 5. How was the citadel surrendered? 6. What of Hasdrubal?

amounting to nine hundred, retired with Hasdrubal to the temple of Esculapius.

6. This being situated on a lofty precipitous site, they were enabled to defend till they were overcome with fatigue and hunger. Hasdrubal stole away from them, and gave himself up to Scipio. The Roman general made him sit at his feet in their sight, on which the Carthaginians reviled him as a coward and a traitor, and then setting fire to the temple, all perished in the flames.

CHAPTER LXX.

End of the Third Punic War.

1. WHILE this dreadful scene was performing, it is said that the wife of Hasdrubal, who with her two children had been left by him in the temple, advanced in front of Scipio and cried out, "O, Roman, thou hast warred against an enemy, and hast no vengeance to fear from the gods; but may the deities of Carthage, and thou likewise, punish Hasdrubal, that traitor to me, his children, his country, and her temples."

2. Then addressing her husband, she said, "O, wretched, faithless, and most cowardly of men! these flames will consume me and my children, but what a triumph wilt thou adorn! thou, the general of mighty Carthage! and what punishment wilt thou not undergo from him before whom thou art sitting!" So saying, she cut the throats of her children, and cast them and herself into the flames.

3. Scipio, surveying the ruin of this mighty city, which had stood for seven hundred years, had abounded in wealth, had spread her commerce far and wide, had conquered many powerful nations, and made Rome tremble for her existence — could not refrain from tears. In his commiseration for the melancholy fate of his country's rival, he repeated these lines of Homer:

Yet, come it will; the day decreed by fates —
How my heart trembles while my tongue relates!
The day when thou, imperial Troy, must bend,
And see thy warriors fall, thy glories end!

4. Polybius, the historian, who was present, interrogated him as to his meaning. He replied that his thoughts were fixed on his own country, which, he foresaw, must also submit to the vicissitude that attends all human things.

5. Scipio allowed his soldiers to plunder the city while it was burning. He despatched his swiftest ship to Rome, with the account of his achievement. The most unbounded joy prevailed among the unfeeling Romans, on learning that Carthage was no more. Ten commissioners were sent out to join with Scipio in regulating the affairs of Africa. Carthage was destroyed B. C. 146.

LXX. — 1, 2. What of the wife of Hasdrubal? 3. What of Scipio on seeing the ruins of Carthage? 4. What of Polybius? 5, 6. How did the Romans behave towards the

6. The very ruins of the city were levelled with the earth, and heavy curses were pronounced on any one who should attempt to rebuild it. All the towns which had adhered faithfully to Carthage were treated in the same manner. Those which had joined Rome, particularly Utica, were rewarded with an increase of territory. Africa was reduced to a province, a land and poll tax was laid upon the people, and a proprætor was sent from Rome every year to govern it.

7. During the Third Punic War the disturbances excited in Macedonia by an impostor, Andrisus, who pretended to be the son of Philip, kindled a new war, which proved fatal to the liberties of Greece. The Achæans, stimulated by some factious leaders, took up arms, but were subdued in the same year that Carthage was destroyed.

8. Mummius, the Roman consul, after having plundered the city of Corinth of its statues, pictures, and most valuable effects, set it on fire, and reduced it to a heap of ruins. Thebes and Chalcis shared the same fate.

9. Mummius was so ignorant of the value of works of art, that on shipping his plunder to Italy, he bargained with the shipmasters that in case the statues and paintings were lost, they should furnish others as good in their stead! *to here*

CHAPTER LXXI.

Tiberius Gracchus.

1. THE political state of Rome was now such as to be highly unfavorable to the preservation of the liberty of the citizens. The mass of the population, who had the power of bestowing all the great and lucrative offices, were poor, while numbers among the nobility were immensely rich.

2. Thus an oligarchy and a democracy were combined together in the state, and it was evident that unless this condition of things could be speedily changed, there must be an end of the republican constitution of Rome. The brothers, Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, who were tribunes of the people, saw clearly the condition and tendency of things, and resolved to apply a timely remedy by renewing the Licinian law against holding large tracts of land.

3. This proposal was very unwelcome to the rich, who endeavored to persuade the people that the proposers of it aimed only at disturbing the government, and throwing all things into confusion. But Tiberius Gracchus, who was one of the most eloquent men of his time, removed these impressions from the minds of the people, and the law was passed.

conquered people? 7. What happened in Macedonia? 8. What of Corinth, Thebes, &c.? 9. What story is told of the ignorance of Mummius?

LXXI. — 1. What was the state of Rome at this time? 2. What of the two Gracchi? 3. How were the rich inclined with regard to the Licinian law? 4. What of Attalus?

4. The death of Attalus, king of Pergamus, afforded him a new opportunity for espousing the side of the people against the aristocracy. This king had by his last will left all his territories to Rome, and Gracchus proposed that the money should be divided among the poor. This caused greater disturbance than ever, B. C. 132.

5. Gracchus, haranguing the people at the capitol, was interrupted and threatened by the retainers of the nobles. He begged in vain to be heard, and at length raised his hand to his head to signify that his life was in danger. His opponent immediately raised a cry that he demanded a diadem, and this caused an universal uproar in the city.

6. A large body of the senators, attended by their retainers, armed with clubs, marched to the capitol, knocking down all who ventured to oppose them. Tiberius, perceiving his danger, endeavored to flee; he threw away his toga to expedite his movements, and attempted to force his way through the throng.

7. But happening to stumble over a person who lay on the ground, Satureius, one of the tribunes, who was of the opposite faction, struck him dead with a broken piece of a seat. Three hundred of his partisans shared the same fate. The vengeance of the senate did not stop here; many of the friends of Gracchus were driven into banishment without any legal process, and nothing was omitted to inspire the people with an abhorrence of his pretended crimes.

8. Scipio Nasica, a large holder of the public lands, was the ring-leader of the senatorial faction in these proceedings, which, for the first time during several centuries, caused civil bloodshed in Rome. So great was the odium which subsequently fell upon him from this cause, that the senate, to screen him from popular resentment, despatched him to Asia, under a pretext of public business, but in reality as a species of honorable exile. He died in a few months, the victim of mortification and remorse.

CHAPTER LXXII.

Caius Gracchus.

1. WHILE the city was thus disturbed by civil tumults, Sicily was exposed to the horrors of a servile war. The slaves in this island, exasperated by the cruelties of their masters, rose in rebellion, seized the town of Enna, and appointed one Eunus for their commander. This person gained considerable advantages over the Romans, took the strong city of Taurominium, and maintained the war for six years.

2. The consul Rupilius led an army against him, but was obliged to use treachery to accomplish his purpose. Eunus was betrayed by

king of Pergamus? 5. What of Tiberius Gracchus at the capitol? 6. How was he attacked? 7. What was the fate of Gracchus and his associates? 8. What of Scipio Nasica?

LXXII. — 1. What war happened in Sicily? 2. How was it quelled? 3. What of

one of the slaves whom the consul had bribed ; his followers were slaughtered, and their leader died in prison.

3. Caius Gracchus was but twenty-one years of age when his brother was murdered. On account of his youth he was overlooked by the nobility, and lived in retirement. But undaunted by his brother's fate, he resolved to pursue the same course, and was confirmed in this determination by his mother, Cornelia, a woman of undaunted spirit, animated by the purest principles of patriotism.

4. He commenced his career by offering himself a candidate for the office of quæstor, to which he was elected without opposition. His integrity and ability in this station gained the general approbation. He was chosen tribune of the people, B. C. 122, and immediately began to take measures for enforcing the Licinian law.

5. The senate set up Drusus, another tribune, as a rival to Gracchus, and this wretched minion to an aristocratic faction, by making grants of money and remissions of taxes to the people, soon managed to supplant his colleague in the favor of the fickle multitude. The latter, on standing as a candidate for the third time, lost the tribuneship, the inspectors having been bribed to make a false return.

6. This was followed by the elevation of Opimius, the most violent man of the aristocratic faction, to the consulship. A collision could not long be avoided. The nobles, confiding in the numbers of their armed adherents, were anxious to provoke a battle : but Gracchus, although personally menaced by the furious consul, wished to preserve peace.

7. An accident precipitated the catastrophe. While the consul was performing the customary morning sacrifice, one of his lictors, carrying away the entrails, said with contemptuous voice and gesture to the friends of Gracchus, " Make way there, ye worthless fellows, for honest men ! " This insult so provoked the persons to whom it was addressed, that they fell upon him with their sharp writing-styls, and stabbed him to the heart.

CHAPTER LXXIII.

End of Roman Freedom.

1. THIS rude act afforded Opimius the opportunity which he had so eagerly sought. The senate hastily assembled, and passed a vote requiring the consul to " take care that the republic received no detriment." By this form he was invested with dictatorial power. He immediately issued a proclamation, that whoever should bring the head of Gracchus, or of his colleague, Fulvius, should be rewarded with its weight in gold.

2. Gracchus, with his most zealous followers, took possession of the Aventine Hill, and proposed an accommodation to the senate and

Caius Gracchus ? 4. How did he begin his career ? 5. Who was Drusus ? 6. Opimius ? 7. What accident led to a conflict ?

LXXIII. — 1. What was done by Opimius ? 2. What by Gracchus and his party ?

consuls; but the latter, who were sensible of the superior strength of their party, and were determined to crush him, rejected every overture. They offered pardon to all who should abandon Gracchus, which had the desired effect, and he soon found his forces much diminished by desertion.

3. Opimius, thirsting for slaughter, led his men to the Aventine, and fell upon the multitude with ungovernable fury. A dreadful slaughter ensued, and not less than three thousand citizens were slain upon the spot. Gracchus attempted to cross a bridge that led from the city, but his pursuers pressed him closely, and forced him to take refuge, with a companion, in a grove near the Tiber, which had long been dedicated to the Furies.

4. Here, finding himself surrounded on all sides, he persuaded his companion to run him through with his sword. This person then killed himself; and the enemy coming up, cut off the head of Gracchus, which they stuck on the point of a spear, as a trophy.

5. Septimuleius, an intimate friend of Gracchus, obtained possession of it and carried it home where he took out the brain and filled the cavity with lead, to increase its weight. He received of the consul seventeen pounds of gold as his recompense.

6. Thus fell, B. C. 120, Caius Gracchus, who is usually censured by historians as guilty of sedition. Whether the two brothers were actuated by ambition or patriotism, in the promulgation of the agrarian law, is not, perhaps, very easy to determine, but it appears that justice was on their side, and the sedition was that of the senate against the Gracchi.

7. But the republic had long been verging to its fall, and no human means could save it. With the Gracchi perished the real freedom of Rome. From this time the power of the state was wielded by a corrupt and insolent aristocracy. The senate was now essentially changed from that venerable assembly whom we have seen overthrowing Pyrrhus and Hannibal, as much by their virtues as by their arms.

8. The men who composed this body were now only to be distinguished from the rest of the people by their luxurious habits. They ruled the commonwealth by the weight of an authority gained from riches and mercenary dependents. The tribunes, who were previously accounted protectors of the people, becoming rich themselves, and having no longer any interests diverse from those of the senate, concurred with them in their oppressions.

3. What took place at the Aventine? 4. What became of Gracchus? 5. What is related of Septimuleius? 6. What was the character of the Gracchi? 7. What was the state of Rome at this time? 8. What was the character of the senate after war?

CHAPTER LXXIV

The Jugurthine War.

1. THE check of popular control being removed, the profligacy and corruption of the nobility soon became strikingly manifest by their conduct in the Jugurthine war, which broke out in the following manner. Micipsa, king of Numidia, on his death-bed, divided his dominions between his two sons, Hiempsal and Adherbal, and his nephew, Jugurtha, the latter being of illegitimate birth.

2. This person, being determined to obtain possession of the whole inheritance, procured the murder of Hiempsal, and expelled Adherbal, who took refuge at Rome. The senate seemed at first disposed to punish the usurper, but were easily corrupted by his gold, which he sent to Rome for this purpose. They decreed that the kingdom of Numidia should be divided between him and Adherbal.

3. This success stimulated Jugurtha to fresh iniquities; he made war upon his cousin, gained possession of his person by a capitulation, and, in violation of the treaty, put him to death. Even this atrocity failed to arouse a sense of justice in the Roman senate, and Jugurtha would have escaped unpunished, had not Memmius, one of the tribunes, exposed the profligate venality of the aristocracy in a general assembly of the people.

4. In consequence of this, Cassius Longinus was sent as prætor to Africa, with directions to bring Jugurtha to Rome, in order that those who had taken bribes from him might be convicted. Jugurtha, being brought before the assembly, was interrogated by Memmius; but Bæbius, another tribune, who had been bribed for the purpose, forbade the king to reply.

5. The people were filled with indignation, but Bæbius heeded them not, and Jugurtha, taking courage, ventured on another murder. His cousin, Massiva, then at Rome, was urging his own claims to the crown of Numidia; and Jugurtha, seeing him likely to succeed, resolved to have him put out of the way. Assassins were easily procured, and Massiva was slain in the street.

6. Such an insult could not be borne by the Romans, and Jugurtha was ordered to depart. It is said that as he went out of the gate he turned round, and gazing at Rome, exclaimed, "Venal city! and soon to perish if a purchaser can be found!"

7. Albanus, the consul, was sent with an army to follow him; but this commander giving up the direction of the war to his brother, Aulus, an incompetent person, the Romans were compelled to hazard a battle on disadvantageous terms; and the whole army, to avoid being put to the sword, was obliged to pass under the yoke, and evacuate Numidia within ten days.

LXXIV. — 1. How did the Jugurthine war originate? 2. What was the behavior of Jugurtha? What of the Roman senate? 3. What success had Jugurtha? 4. 5. What was done by him at Rome? 6. What of his departure from the city? 7. What misfortune happened to the Romans in Africa? 8. Who next undertook the war? 9. What was the success of Metellus?

8. When this catastrophe was known at Rome, the city was filled with grief and mortification. The conduct of the war was given to Cæcilius Metellus, a man who was an honor to his order, of high talents, spotless integrity, and pure morals; his only defect was pride, "the common evil of the nobility," as remarked by Sallust, the historian of these events.

9. Metellus, on his arrival in Africa, found the army utterly disorganized; but by assiduous attention to business, he soon placed it on an efficient footing, and retrieved the affairs of the Romans. In the space of two years he overthrew Jugurtha in several battles, expelled him from his dominions, and constrained him to sue for peace.

CHAPTER LXXV.

Conquest and Death of Jugurtha.



Marius receiving Jugurtha as a Prisoner.

1. THUS all things promised a successful termination of the war, when Metellus was frustrated in his expectations by the intrigues of Caius Marius, who came in to reap the harvest of glory which the labors of Metellus had sown. Marius was the son of a poor villager, and passed his early life in the labors of the field. His manners were boorish, his countenance frightful, and his stature gigantic; his only virtue appears to have been personal bravery.

2. When Metellus was obliged, according to custom, to solicit at Rome for a continuance of his command, Marius, who was in the army under Metellus, and whose ambition knew no bounds resolved

to obtain the office of general for himself, and thus gain all the credit of putting an end to the war. For this purpose he privately traduced Metellus, by his emissaries, whom he sent to Rome, and having excited a spirit of discontent against him, he obtained leave of absence and returned to the capital, himself to stand for the consulship.

3. This had been one great object of his ambition, but the consulship was an office which had hitherto been the exclusive property of the nobility. Marius, however, was sagacious enough to perceive that the times were changed, and that the people would gladly seize an occasion to humble the aristocracy.

4. He was received on his return with high favor by the people, while Metellus was abused by them; the latter was a noble, the former one of themselves, the man of the people. Party spirit is always blind to the defects of a favorite and the merits of an adversary.

5. The elections approached; the tribunes harangued, the peasants and the workmen of the city left their business to support Marius; the nobility were defeated, and he was made consul, B. C. 107. He was then invested with the supreme power for managing the war, and Metellus was recalled.

6. Marius showed himself an able general in the war against Jugurtha. His vigilance and skill were equal to his valor, and he quickly reduced all the towns which that monarch had yet remaining in Numidia. The latter, finding himself unable to contend singly with the Romans, had recourse to Bocchus, king of Mauritania, whose daughter he had married.

7. By a promise of one third of the kingdom of Jugurtha, Bocchus was induced to join him, and their joint forces attacked the Roman camp by night, gaining a considerable advantage. This success, however, was of short continuance. Marius shortly after overthrew them in two battles, in one of which ninety thousand Africans were left dead on the field.

8. Bocchus, now finding the Romans too strong for him, attempted to make a peace for himself. The senate received his ambassadors with their usual haughtiness, and gave him to understand that Jugurtha must be delivered up to them.

9. The pride of the Mauritanian king struggled against such a proposal, but by artful negotiations he was at length induced to betray his son-in-law. The crafty Numidian, who had so long set the power of Rome at defiance, was lured to a conference, and delivered into the hands of Sulla, who commanded in the absence of Marius.

10. Jugurtha was loaded with chains and sent to Rome. His end exhibits a deplorable instance of fallen greatness and blighted ambition. He was exhibited to the populace of the capital at the triumph of Marius, and immediately thrown naked into the Tullian dungeon, at the foot of the capitol. "Hercules!" said he, with affected gayety, as he entered it, "what a cold bath you have!" Here he was left to starve to death, B. C. 106.

3. How were the times changed at Rome? 4. How were Marius and Metellus received there? 5. What success had Marius in the election? 6. How did he conduct the war in Africa? 7. How was Bocchus induced to join Jugurtha? What battles followed? 8, 9 How was Jugurtha given up to the Romans? 10. What became of him?

CHAPTER LXXVI.

Invasion of the Cimbrians and Teutones.

1. In the year 110 B. C., intelligence reached Rome of the approach of a barbarous people named Cimbrians. This people is supposed to have inhabited the peninsula of Jutland, and those parts which afterwards sent forth the Anglo-Saxon conquerors of England. At this time, urged by some of the causes which usually set barbarous tribes in motion, they resolved to migrate southwards.

2. The consul Cn. Papirius Carbo, gave them battle, but was defeated. The barbarians, however, instead of advancing into Italy, turned back, and being joined by a German people named the Teutones, poured into Southern Gaul, where they defeated the consul M. Junius Silanus. The next year the consul M. Aurelius Scaurus had a similar fate; and in the following year the consul L. Cassius Longinus was defeated and slain by the Tigurinians, a Helvetic people who had joined the Cimbrians, and the remnant of his army were compelled to pass under the yoke to escape destruction.

3. Marius, who was made consul a third time, employed himself chiefly in restoring the discipline of the army; and Sulla, who was his legate the first, and a tribune the second year, displayed his diplomatic talent now in Gaul as before in Numidia, and thus augmented the envy and hatred with which the rude ferocious consul regarded him.

4. His colleague happening to die just before the elections, Marius went to Rome to hold them, and there his friend the tribune L. Apuleius Saturninus, as had been arranged between them, proposed him for a consul a fourth time. Marius affected to decline the honor; Saturninus called him a traitor to his country if he refused to serve her in the time of her peril; the scene was well acted between them and Marius was made consul with Q. Lutatius Catulus.

5. The province of Gaul was decreed to both the consuls; and as the barbarians had divided their forces, the Cimbrians moving to enter Italy on the north-east, the Teutones and Ambrons from Gaul, Marius crossed the Alps, and fortified a strong camp on the banks of the Rhone, that he might raise the spirit of his men, and accustom them to the sight of the huge bodies and ferocious mien of the barbarians.

6. He refused all their challenges to fight, and contented himself with repelling their assaults on his camp; and at last the barbarians, giving up all hopes of forcing him to action, resolved to cross the Alps, leaving him behind them. We are told that they spent six days in marching by the Roman camp, and that as they went they jeeringly asked the soldiers if they had any messages to send to their wives.

LXXVI. — 1. What of the Cimbrians? 2. The Teutones and Tigurinians? 3. Of Marius and Sulla? 4. How did Marius obtain the consulship? 5, 6. What of the campaign of Marius against the barbarians?

CHAPTER LXXVII.

Defeat of the Barbarians.

1. **MARIUS** then broke up his camp and followed them, keeping on the high grounds till he came to *Aquæ Sextiæ*. He there chose for his camp an eminence where there was no water, and when his soldiers complained, he pointed to a stream running by the enemies' camp, and told them they must buy it there with their blood. "Lead us on then at once, while our blood is warm!" cried they. "We must first secure our camp," coolly replied the general.

2. The camp-servants, taking with them axes, hatchets, and some spears and swords, for their defence, went down to the stream to water the beasts, and they drove off such of the enemies as they met. The noise roused the *Ambrons*, who were at their dinner. They put on their armor and crossed the stream; the *Ligurians* advanced to engage them, some more Roman troops succeeded, and the *Ambrons* were driven back to their wagons with loss. This check irritated the barbarians exceedingly, and the Romans passed the night in anxiety, expecting an attack.

3. In the morning, **Marius**, having sent the legate **Claudius Marcellus** with three thousand men to occupy a woody hill in the enemy's rear, prepared to give battle. The impatient barbarians charged uphill; the Romans, with the advantage of the ground, drove them back, **Marcellus** fell on their rear, and the rout was soon complete: the slain and the captives were, it is said, not less than one hundred thousand. As **Marius**, after the battle, stood with a torch, in the act of setting fire to a pile of their arms, messengers arrived with tidings of his being chosen consul for the fifth time.

4. **Catulus**, meantime, had not been equally fortunate. Not thinking it safe to divide his forces for defending the passes of the Alps, he retired behind the *Atesis*, securing the fords, and having a bridge in front of his position to communicate with the country on the other side. But when the *Cimbrians* poured down from the Alps, and were beginning to fill up the bed of the river, his soldiers grew alarmed, and unable to retain them, he led them back, abandoning the plain of the *Po* to the barbarians.

5. **Catulus** was continued in his command as proconsul the next year; his deficiency of military talent being supplied by the ability of **Sulla**, who had left **Marius** to join him. **Marius**, who was at Rome, instead of triumphing as was expected, summoned his troops from Gaul, and proceeded to unite them with those of **Catulus**, hoping to have the glory of a second victory. A battle took place in the neighborhood of *Vercellæ*; **Marius** placed his own troops on the wings and those of **Catulus** in the centre, which he threw back, in order that they might have as little share as possible in the action.

LXXVII.—1, 2. What of the encampment of **Marius** at *Aquæ Sextiæ*? 3. What of the battle here? 4. What was the success of **Catulus**? 5, 6. What of the battle of

6. But this manœuvre was a failure, for an immense cloud of dust rising, which prevented the troops from seeing each other, Marius in his charge left the enemy on one side, and the brunt of the battle fell on the troops of Catulus. The dust was of advantage to the Romans, as it prevented their seeing the number of their foes; the heat of the weather (it being now July) exhausted the barbarians, and they were obliged to give way, and as their front ranks had bound themselves together by chains from their waists, they could not escape.

7. A dreadful spectacle presented itself when the Romans drove them to their line of wagons; the women rushed out, fell on the fugitives, and then slew themselves and their children; the men too put an end to themselves in various ways; the captives amounted to sixty thousand, the slain to double that number.

8. Marius and Catulus triumphed together, and though the former had had little share in the victory, his rank and the fame of his former exploits caused this also to be ascribed to him; the multitude called him the third founder of Rome, and poured out libations to him with the gods at their meals.

9. One evil of great magnitude which resulted from this war was, the great number of slaves that it dispersed over the Roman dominions; and at this very time those of Sicily were again in insurrection. Under the guidance of a slave named Salvius, who assumed the name of Trypho and the royal dignity, they defeated the Roman armies. In another part of the island the slaves made one Athenio, a Cilician, their king, but he submitted to Trypho, after whose death he had the supreme command. At length the consul M. Aquilius slew Athenio with his own hand in an engagement, and suppressed the rebellion.

CHAPTER LXXVIII.

Tumults at Rome.

1. THE cruelty with which the nobility had used their victory over the Gracchi, and the scandalous corruption and profligacy which they had exhibited in the case of Jugurtha, had greatly exasperated the people against them, and had alienated from them the affections of the lovers of justice and honor. Ambitious and revengeful men took advantage of this state of feeling, to have themselves made tribunes, and to procure enactments injurious to the nobles as a body and as individuals.

2. Marius was raised a sixth time to the consulate, and it is said that he employed both money and arts to prevent Metellus from being his colleague, and to have L. Valerius Flaccus, on whom he could rely, appointed. His wives were Glaucia and Saturninus, both mor

Vercellæ? 7. What was the result of this battle? 8. What of the triumph of Marius and Catulus? 9. What evil followed this war?

LXXVIII. — 1. How were the people exasperated against the nobility? 2. What of

at enemies to Metellus, who, but for his colleague, would, in his censorship, have degraded them for their scandalous lives.

3. Glaucia, as prætor, presided when Saturninus stood a second time for the tribunate. He was notwithstanding rejected, and A. Nonius, a bitter enemy to them both, was elected; but when the new tribune left the assembly, they sent a body of their satellites after him, who murdered him; and the next morning Glaucia, without waiting for the people, made his own crew appoint Saturninus to take his place, no one venturing even to murmur.

4. A series of popular measures were now introduced. By one law the land which had been recovered from the Cimbrians beyond the Po was to be treated as conquered land, without any regard to the rights of its Gallic owners, and divided among Roman citizens and soldiers; one hundred acres apiece were to be given to the veterans in Africa, colonies were to be sent to Sicily, Achaia, and Macedonia, and the prize gold was to be employed in the purchase of lands to be divided.

5. By another law corn was to be distributed to the people every month *gratis*. It was added to the law for dividing the Gallic land, that in case of its passing, the senate must within five days swear to it, and that any one who refused should be expelled the senate, and fined five hundred thousand sesterces.

6. The laws relating to the division of the lands were not at all pleasing to the town population, who saw that the advantages would fall mostly to the Italian allies. The movers, therefore, took care to bring in from the country large numbers of those who had served under Marius, to overawe and outvote the people of the city. These last cried out that it thundered, which, according to the Roman superstition, would have made the vote illegal. Saturninus took no heed, but urged on his law; they then girt their clothes about them, seized whatever came to hand, and fell on the country folk, who, incited by Saturninus, attacked them in turn, drove them off, and then passed the law.

7. Marius, as consul, laid the matter before the senate, declaring that he for one would never take the oath. Metellus, for whom the snare was laid, made a similar declaration; the rest expressed their approbation, and Marius closed the senate. On the fifth day he assembled them again in haste, telling them that the people were very furious for the measure, and that he saw no remedy but for them to swear to it as far as it was law, and that when the country people were gone home they might easily show that it was not law, as it had been carried by force and when there was thunder. He himself and his friends then swore; the rest, though they now saw through the trick, were afraid not to do the same.

8. Metellus alone refused. Next day Saturninus sent and had him dragged out of the senate-house; when the other tribunes defended him, Glaucia and Saturninus ran to the country people telling them they had no chance of land if Metellus was allowed to

'be sixth consulship of Marius? 3. What of the tribunate? 4, 5. What new laws were now proposed? 6. How were these laws relished? 7, 8. How was Metellus driven into

remain in Rome. Saturninus then proposed that the consuls should be directed to interdict him from fire, water, and lodging. The town people armed themselves, and were resolved to defend him: but Metellus, thanking them for their zeal, said he would not have his country endangered on his account, and he went into voluntary exile at Rhodes. Saturninus then had his bill against him passed, and Marius made the proclamation with no little pleasure.

9. When the elections came on, Saturninus caused himself to be re-chosen, and with him a freedman named L. Equitius Firmo, whom he gave out to be a son of Tib. Gracchus, in order to gain him the popular favor. But the great object of him and his faction was to get Glauca into the consulate, which was a matter of some difficulty, for M. Antonius, the celebrated orator, had been already chosen for one of the places, and C. Memmius, a man of high character, and extremely popular, stood for the other.

10. They did not, however, let this difficulty long stand in their way. They sent some of their satellites, armed with sticks, who, in the open day, in the midst of the election and before all the people, fell on Memmius and beat him to death! The assembly was dissolved, and Saturninus, next morning, having summoned his adherents from the country, occupied the capitol, with Glauca, the quæstor C. Saufeius, and some others.

11. The senate, having met, declared them public enemies, and directed the consuls to provide for the safety of the state. Marius then reluctantly took arms against his friends. While he loitered, some of the more determined cut the pipes which supplied the capitol with water. When the thirst became intolerable, Saufeius proposed to burn the temple; but the others, relying on Marius, agreed to surrender on the public faith.

12. There was a general cry to put them to death; but Marius, in order to save them, shut them up in the senate-house, under pretext of acting more legally. The people, however, would not be balked of their vengeance; they stripped off the roof, and flung the tiles down on them and killed them. A number of their adherents also were slain, and among them the false Gracchus. A decree for the recall of Metellus was joyfully passed by the senate and people

CHAPTER LXXIX.

The Social War.

1. MATTERS now remained tranquil for a few years. In the year 91 B. C., the tribune M. Livius Drusus, the son of the opponent of C. Gracchus, a young man of many estimable qualities, but of great pride and arrogance, brought forward a series of measures, by which

exile? 9, 10 What tumults took place at the elections? 11. What was done at the capitol? 12. What at the senate-house.

as proposed to remedy the evils of the state, and restore the authority of the senate.

2. To gain the common people at Rome, he proposed that the colonies in Italy and Sicily, which had been long since voted, should be formed, and that the Sempronian law for the distribution of corn should be retained. He further resolved to give the freedom of the state to all the Italians. He carried on his measures with some violence, and one evening, when he returned home from the forum, followed as usual by a great crowd, and was in his hall dismissing them, he cried out that he was wounded. A shoemaker's knife was found stuck in his thigh, but the assassin was not discovered. "Ah! my friends and relations," said he, as he lay dying, "will the republic ever have a citizen such as I!" No judicial inquiry was instituted into this murder, and all the laws of Drusus were abrogated.

3. The knights resolved to push their success to the uttermost, and to break down the authority of the senate. They therefore made a law to punish all those who had openly or secretly aided the Italians in their designs against the state; for, as many of the principal senators had favored their claims, they intended in this way to drive them from the city. The tribunes interposed; but the knights stood round them brandishing their naked daggers; the law was passed; and prosecutions were instantly commenced against the leading senators. Many were condemned; others went into voluntary exile.

4. The Italian allies, meantime, seeing that they had nothing now to expect from the justice of Rome, had resolved on an appeal to arms, and began secretly to make the requisite combinations among themselves. The Romans, aware of what they were meditating, sent spies to the different towns; and one of these seeing a youth led as a hostage from the town of Asculum in Picenum to another town, gave information to the proconsul Q. Servilius, who hastened thither, and sharply rebuked the Asculans for what they were doing; but they fell on him, and slew him and his legate Fonteius, and then massacred all the Romans in the place, and pillaged their houses.

5. Before the confederates commenced the war, they sent to Rome, requiring to be admitted to a participation in the honors and advantages of that state, to whose greatness they had so mainly contributed. The senate replied, that if they repented of what they had done, they might send a deputation; otherwise, not. The confederates then resolved to try the chance of war; their army, formed from the contingents of their several states, amounted to one hundred thousand men, exclusive of the domestic forces of each state.

6. All the people of the Sabellian race, except the Sabines and Hernicians, who had long since become Roman citizens, shared in the war which now broke out; Rome was now compelled to struggle for her existence with enemies whose troops equalled her own in number, discipline, and valor, and who had generals as skilful as those she could oppose to them. The allies chose Corfinium, the

LXXIX.—1, 2. What new measure was proposed by Drusus? What was the consequence? 3. What was done by the knights? 4. What by the allies? 5. What of their embassy to Rome? 6. What was the character of this war? What name was given to it?

chief town of the Pelignians, for their capital, under the name of Italica; they appointed a senate of five hundred members, two consuls, and twelve prætors. This war is named the Social War, and sometimes the Marsic or Italian War, from the Marsians, an Italian people engaged in it.

CHAPTER LXXX.

The Social War.

1. THE advantages in the Social War were at first all on the side of the allies. They defeated the consul Julius, and took the town of *Æsernia*, in Samnium; seized *Venafrum* by treachery, and destroyed two Roman cohorts there. They also defeated a force of ten thousand men under the legate *Perperna*, killed four thousand of them, entered *Campania*, and took *Minturnæ*, *Nola*, *Stabiæ*, and *Salernum*.

2. *Rutilius* and *Marius*, who commanded the Roman forces, advanced to the *Liris*, over which they threw two bridges within a short distance of each other. *Vettius Scato*, the Marsic leader, who was encamped opposite that of *Marius*, went and lay in ambush during the night near that of *Rutilius*; and when the Romans crossed in the morning, he drove them back with a loss of eight thousand men, *Rutilius* receiving a wound in the head, of which he afterwards died. But in the mean time *Marius* had crossed over and taken *Vettius'* camp, which obliged him to retreat. When the bodies of the consul and other men of rank were brought to Rome for interment, the sight was so dispiriting, that the senate made a decree that in future all who fell should be buried on the spot; the Italians, when they heard of it, made a similar decree.

3. The Marsians, having attacked *Marius*, were driven back into some vineyards, whither he did not venture to pursue them; but *Sulla*, who was encamped behind the vineyards, when he heard the noise fell on the fugitives; and the entire loss of the Marsians was six thousand men.

4. In this war the conduct of *Marius* was little worthy of his former fame. Either in consequence of his age, (he was now sixty-five,) or of a nervous disorder, as he himself said, he acted with timidity and irresolution, shutting himself up in an entrenched camp, and allowing the enemy to insult him, and finally resigning his command.

5. The first year of the war was now drawing to a close; the senate had been obliged to allow the freedmen to be enlisted for the legions, and the *Tuscan*s and *Umbrian*s showed strong symptoms of an inclination to share in the revolt. The opponents to the claims of the allies were therefore forced to yield, and the consul *Julius* had

LXXX. — 1. What was the success of the Social War at the commencement? 2. What battle was fought on the *Liris*? 3. What was the success of the Marsians? 4. What was the conduct of *Marius*? 5. What of the *Tuscan*s and *Umbrian*s? 6. What of

a law passed granting the civic franchise to the Latins, and those who had not revolted; and finally to those who should lay down their arms. This prudent measure at once quieted the Tuscans.

6. The consuls of the next year were Cn. Pompeius Strabo and M. Porcius Cato. The former defeated a body of fifteen thousand Italians, who were on their march for Etruria; the slain were five thousand in number; and it being winter, more than half of those who escaped perished by hunger and the severity of the weather.

7. The Romans having laid siege to Asculum, Judacilius, who was a native of that town, advanced with eight cohorts to its relief, sending word to the people to make a sally when they saw him. This, however, they neglected to do; but he forced his way in, and seeing that there was no chance of his being able to maintain the town, he resolved not to let those escape who had turned the people against him. He seized and put them to death, and then raised a pyre in a temple, on which he placed a couch; and having feasted with his friends, and swallowed poison, he lay down, directing them to set fire to it, and he thus perished.

8. Fortune was now everywhere adverse to the allies; one by one they had lost their best generals; the spirit of resistance gradually died away; and they all, except the Samnites and Lucanians, submitted and received the Roman franchise; and thus, after two years, ended, in the concessions that might have obviated it, the Social War, which had cost Italy the loss of three hundred thousand of the flower of her population, B.C. 89.

CHAPTER LXXXI.

Rivalry of Marius and Sulla.

1. THE merits of Sulla in the Social War had been so great, that he was raised immediately to the consulate, with Q. Pompeius Rufus, and the conduct of the war against Mithridâtes, king of Pontus, was committed to him. But the envy and the cupidity of Marius was excited, and he resolved if possible to deprive him of his command. He leagued himself for this purpose with P. Sulpicius Rufus, a tribune of the people, a man of talent, and a daring character, and immersed in debt. These two projected a law for transferring the command to Marius.

2. For this purpose it was necessary to get a majority in the tribes; and, as this could not be effected as they were then constituted, Sulpicius brought in a bill for distributing the new citizens among all the tribes; for as they were highly discontented with their present position, he reckoned that they would give their votes to those who would relieve them from it. But the old citizens were not so

Pompeius Strabo? 7. What happened at Asculum? 8. How did the Social War end?

LXXXI. — 1. What of the rivalry of Sulla and Marius? 2 What was done by Sulla?

willing to part with their monopoly ; and they employed sticks and stones against the intruders.

3. As the day of voting drew near, Sulpicius enjoined his adherents to come to the forum with concealed daggers, and to act as he should direct them. A tumult ensued, the daggers were drawn and brandished, and the consuls menaced. Pompeius fled ; Sulla retired to consult the senate ; and while he was away the Sulpician party fell on and murdered the son of Pompeius, for freely speaking his mind. Sulla, unable to resist, set out for his army, which was at Nola ; Sulpicius then had his bill passed forthwith, and the Mithridatic war was decreed to Marius.

4. Sulla, having assembled his troops, informed them of all that had occurred ; and as their hopes of plunder in the east were high, and they feared that Marius might have other troops and other officers, they called on him to lead them at once to Rome. He gladly obeyed, and set forth at the head of six legions. The soldiers stoned the tribunes whom Marius sent to take the command ; the senate, compelled by Marius, sent two prætors to prohibit the advance of Sulla, but they narrowly escaped with their lives from the soldiery.

5. Other embassies followed, praying Sulla not to come nearer than where he was, at the fifth milestone, Marius wishing to get time to prepare for defence. Sulla, seeing through the design, gave the promise ; but he followed close on the heels of the envoys, and he himself, with one legion, seized the Cælian gate, while Pompeius, with another, secured the Colline ; a third went round to the bridge, a fourth stayed without, and Sulla led the remaining two into the city. The people began to fling missiles and tiles on them from the roofs ; but when Sulla threatened to set fire to the houses, they desisted. Marius and his party gave them battle at the Esquiline, but were defeated ; and Marius and Sulpicius, having vainly essayed to excite the slaves, fled out of the city.

6. Sulla next day assembled the people, and having deplored the condition into which the constitution had been brought by the arts and the violence of wicked men, proposed, as the only remedy, a return to the former wholesome state of things ; that no measure should be brought before the people that had not been examined and approved of by the senate ; and that the voting should be by the classes, as arranged by King Servius, and not by the tribes. He then, as the senate was so much reduced, selected three hundred of the most respectable men to augment it. All the late measures of Sulpicius were declared illegal, and himself and the elder and younger Marius, and about twelve other senators, were outlawed, and their property confiscated.

clius ? 3. What tumult happened at the election ? 4, 5. What was done by Sulla ? 6. How did he alter the constitution ?

CHAPTER LXXXII.

Flight and Exile of Marius.

1. SULPICIUS was betrayed by a slave, and was put to death. Marius escaped in the night to Ostia, where one of his friends had provided a vessel for him, in which he embarked; but a storm coming on, he was obliged to land near Circeii, where, as he and his companions were rambling about, some herdsmen, who knew him, telling him that a party of horse had just been seen in quest of him, they got into a wood, where they passed the night without food.

2. Next morning they set out for Minturnæ, but on turning round they saw a troop of horsemen in pursuit of them. There happened to be two vessels just then lying close in to the shore, and they ran and got aboard of them. The horsemen came to the water's edge, and called out to the crews to put Marius out; but they were moved by his entreaties, and, refusing to deliver him up, sailed away. Afterwards, reflecting on the danger they were incurring, they persuaded him to land at the mouth of the Liris, to get some food and repose, and while he was lying asleep in the grass, they went on board, and making sail, left him to his fate.

3. Marius rambled about the marshes till he reached the solitary hut of an old man, whose compassion he implored. The old man led him away into the marsh, and making him lie down in a hollow spot near the river, covered him with sedge and rushes. Presently Marius heard at the hut the voices of those who were in pursuit of him, and fearing lest his host might betray him, he got up, and went and stood up to his neck in the mud and water of the marsh. Here, however, he was soon discovered, dragged out, naked as he was, led to Minturnæ, and placed in confinement.

4. The authorities there, having consulted together, resolved to put him to death, and a Gallic horseman was sent to despatch him. The Gaul, when he approached the spot where he was lying in a dark room, was daunted by the fiery glare of the old warrior's eyes, and when he rose and cried with a tremendous voice, "Dost thou dare to slay Caius Marius?" he rushed out, crying, "I cannot kill Caius Marius." The magistrates then determined not to have the blood of so great a man on their heads; they gave him his liberty, and leading him to the coast, put him on board of a vessel to pass over to Africa.

5. Marius landed at Carthage; but presently came a messenger from C. Sextilius, the governor of the province, ordering him to depart. He long sat in silence, looking sternly at the envoy, and on his inquiry of what reply he should make to the prætor, he groaned and said, "Tell him you saw Caius Marius sitting an exile amidst the ruins of Carthage." He then retired to the little isle

LXXXII. — 1. What became of Sulpicius and Marius? 2, 3, 4. Relate the adventures of Marius at Minturnæ. 5. His reply at Carthage.

of Cercina, where he was joined by his son and several of his other friends, and they remained there watching the course of events.

CHAPTER LXXXIII.

Civil War of Marius and Sulla.

1. At length Cinna, a partisan of Marius, was chosen consul, and called upon Sulla to answer for his crimes. The latter quitted Rome to march against Mithridates, and Marius was recalled from Africa, where he had lived some time in exile. The city, however, was a prey to civil discord, B. C. 87.

2. When Marius landed in Italy he was surrounded by men of ruined fortunes, and slaves, who composed a formidable army. Cinna, who had been expelled from Rome by the senate, raised another army among the Italian states. Sertorius headed a fourth, and Papius Carbo a fifth.

3. The senate, after making an idle attempt at resistance, opened the gates to the combined armies. Marius entered Rome, breathing brutal vengeance against his enemies. A guard of slaves, which he had organized to execute his work of proscription, received orders to massacre every person whose salute he did not return, and these bloody instructions were executed without scruple.

4. Thus privileged to murder by wholesale, these ruffians abandoned themselves to every dreadful enormity, and at length Cinna and Sertorius found it necessary to put them all to the sword.

5. Marius, Cinna and Carbo, now entered into a confederacy to butcher all the senators, who were the objects of dislike with the popular party. A horrible slaughter took place; the heads of the murdered senators were stuck upon poles, and their bodies were dragged into the forum, to be devoured by the dogs.

6. Sulla was declared an enemy to his country, and his house was demolished. After desolating the city, the soldiers of Marius dispersed themselves among the neighboring towns and villages, committing acts of bloody cruelty which have not been surpassed in the darkest periods of human history.

7. While Rome was suffering under these cruelties, Sulla was carrying on a successful war against Mithridates. At the battle of Chæronea, in Greece, he defeated, with a very small force, the Asiatic army of one hundred and twenty thousand men. This success struck a terror into his enemies at Rome. The senate despatched Flaccus, the consul, and Fimbria, an experienced general, with an army to attack Mithridates, and turn their arms against Sulla, if they found him disaffected to the senate.

8. In the mean time Sulla encountered two more of the armies of Mithridates, in Greece, which he defeated with terrible slaughter

LXXXIII. — 1, 2. What of Cinna, Marius, and Sertorius? 3, 4. What of the massacres of Marius? 5 6. What of the confederacy of Marius, Cinna, and Carbo? 7, 8. What

In the last of these engagements, twenty thousand men were driven into a river and drowned, twenty thousand more were cut to pieces in a marsh.

9. Plutarch states that the marshes were dyed with blood, that the course of the river was stopped by the bodies of the slain, and that in his own time, two hundred years after the battle, the swords, oars, helmets, and coats of mail, were found buried in the sand.

10. Flaccus and Fimbria, having landed in Asia Minor, fell into a quarrel. The latter gained over the soldiery, attacked his colleague, and put him to death. He then assumed the command, and marched against Mithridates. He defeated the king's son, and compelled him to flee to Pergamus, where his father resided.

11. Fimbria pursued him day and night, and entered Pergamus sword in hand. Mithridates and his son escaped by a few hours, and took refuge in Pitane, where they were immediately besieged by the Romans. Fimbria, having no ships to blockade the place by sea, ordered Lucullus, the Roman admiral, to hasten to Pitane with his fleet; but the latter, under the influence of private pique, refused, and thus enabled Mithridates to escape with his ships to the island of Mitylene.

12. Fimbria, however, carried on the war in Asia Minor with success. He reduced most of the large cities, and at length Lucullus was prevailed upon to attack the fleet of Mithridates. The latter was totally defeated, and compelled to make peace on terms dictated by the Romans.

CHAPTER LXXXIV.

Civil War of Marius and Sulla, continued.

1. SULLA, having carried everything before him in Greece and Asia, now turned his arms against his rival, Fimbria. The latter, finding himself too weak to prevail by force, laid a plot for murdering his antagonist; but this having miscarried, he committed suicide.

2. Thus freed from all his enemies in Asia, Sulla raised immense contributions upon the provinces which he had conquered; and having in this manner amassed an enormous treasure, he turned his face toward Rome, first transmitting to the senate a full account of his victories, with an announcement of his determination to take full revenge upon his foes at home.

3. This intelligence spread consternation throughout Italy, and Marius, whose doom was sealed if Sulla returned, abandoned himself to intemperance, which soon put an end to his life.

4. The senate raised an army, but the men all deserted to Sulla. The people hated Cinna and Carbo, who were now consuls, and had

of the war against Mithridates? 9. What story is related by Plutarch? 10. What of Flaccus and Fimbria? 11. What of the flight of Mithridates? 12. By whom was he finally conquered?

LXXXIV. — 1. What of Sulla and Fimbria? 2. What use did Sulla make of his victories? 3. What became of Marius? 4. What was done by the senate? 5. What suc-

incurred the popular odium by their tyranny and misgovernment they therefore flocked in crowds to the standard of Sulla. The senate, who had now everything to fear, made an appeal to the compassion of the conqueror, but Sulla persisted in the declaration that his enemies should perish either by the sword or by the axe of the executioner.

5. Numerous armies were sent against him, but he was everywhere victorious. Cinna was killed in a tumult, and the son of Marius, after being defeated, fled to Præneste, where he was closely besieged. Civil war now raged in all its horrors.

6. Telesinus, an experienced general of the Samnites, raised an army of forty thousand men, and advanced toward Præneste, under the pretence of relieving Marius. Having thus drawn the troops of Sulla away from Rome, he suddenly wheeled about and made a rapid march by night toward the capital.

7. At break of day he arrived within a mile or two of the walls, and avowed his determination to put to the sword every man in the city, without exception. A sally was made against him without success, and Sulla himself was driven back to his camp.

8. Rome was now on the very verge of ruin. Telesinus advanced with one wing of his army to storm the walls, but at this critical moment a Roman force, commanded by Crassus, attacked the other wing and put them to the rout. Telesinus was then assailed in front and flank, and utterly defeated.

CHAPTER LXXXV.

Dictatorship of Sulla.

1. SULLA was now master of Italy. On his march to Rome, he carried eight thousand prisoners from Antemnæ, whom he delivered up to be massacred in the circus. Twelve thousand of the inhabitants of Præneste shared the same fate. The people of Norba, in Campania, dreading his cruelty, set fire to their houses and perished in the flames.

2. At Rome, a general proscription of the enemies of Sulla filled the city with massacre and blood. The streets were literally heaped up with dead bodies; and when a grave senator, in affright at these horrible butcheries, ventured to ask the bloodthirsty tyrant when he designed to cease from the slaughter of his countrymen, he replied, with the utmost coolness, that he would take the subject into consideration.

3. Cato the Younger, who afterwards became so celebrated by his opposition to Julius Cæsar, and his suicide at Utica, was at this time about thirteen years of age. One day, when he saw the heads

cess had they? 6, 7. What of Telesinus? 8. What danger now threatened Rome? By whom was Telesinus defeated?

LXXXV. — 1. What of Sulla's cruelties? 2. What was the state of Rome? 3. What

At several noble Romans exposed to the public view, after having been cut off by order of Sulla, he was so inflamed with indignation at the sight, that he cried out to his teacher, and demanded a sword, that he might kill the tyrant.



Sulla

4. Nearly five thousand of the most wealthy and eminent men in Rome were massacred by his orders; and having thus to a certain extent glutted his revenge, he caused himself to be proclaimed perpetual dictator, B. C. 80. Being now absolute sovereign of Rome, he annulled every law which stood in his way, and governed by his own will.

5. But to the astonishment of all, both friends and enemies, Sulla, after exercising the supreme power only two years, voluntarily resigned the dictatorship, and withdrew to retirement at Puteoli. This conduct has never been explained; and after a career of the most horrible tyranny and cruelty, this monster was allowed to pass the remainder of his life undisturbed.

6. It is said that one day a young man followed him home, cursing and reviling him, and that he bore it patiently, only saying, "That

anecdote is related of Cato? What of Sulla's dictatorship? 4. What of his abdication? 5. What anecdote is related of Sulla? How did he die? 6. What was his character?

youth's conduct will teach another dictator not to lay down his office so readily." He afterwards retired to Cumæ, where he spent his time in writing his memoirs, in hunting, fishing, drinking, and reveling with players and musicians. He was attacked here with a most loathsome disease, of which he died, B. C. 78.

7. Sulla composed his own epitaph, the purport of which was, that no man had ever exceeded him in serving his friends or injuring his enemies. He was a person, doubtless, of great talents, both as a general and as a statesman; but never did a more ruthless soul animate a human body, than his. He was cruel, less from natural ferocity than from a calm contempt of human nature. He thoroughly despised mankind, and was therefore an aristocrat.

CHAPTER LXXXVI.

The Cilician Pirates.

1. THE jealousies of Pompey and Crassus, the two most powerful men in Rome, now gave rise to fresh dissensions. Pompey was the more admired for his personal character, but Crassus was the richest man in the republic; he entertained the people of Rome at one thousand tables, distributed corn to the poor, and fed the greater part of the citizens for nearly three months.

2. Pompey, on the other hand, labored to repeal the unpopular laws of Sulla. He restored to the knights their judicial power, and to the tribunes all their former privileges. Both were chosen consuls, and Pompey signalized his administration by the most brilliant success against the Cilician pirates.

3. From the earliest ages the Mediterranean Sea had been the theatre of piracy, a profession which at first was hardly held dishonorable. When Athens became a strong naval power, the pirates of the Ægean Sea were suppressed. The Rhodians, an active maritime people, also assisted in checking the practice; but when their naval strength had been reduced by the supremacy of the Romans, piracy revived.

4. The Cilicians carried on their system of robbing at sea to an extent hardly credible; whole towns and islands were engaged in it as a regular occupation. The prisoners taken by the pirates were sold into servitude; and these marauders supplied a large slave market in the island of Delos.

5. Their ravages were committed on a large scale. The temples of Samothrace, Claros, and other renowned sanctuaries, were plundered; large towns on the coast were taken and sacked, and fleets of pirates ventured even to the columns of Hercules.

6. Italy was not safe from their insults. They surprised the towns upon the coast, and carried off the Roman senators with their fami-

LXXXVI. — 1, 2. What of Pompey and Crassus? 3. What of piracy in the Mediterranean? 4. The Cilicians? 5. Their piracies? 6. How did they distress Rome?

lies, gaining large sums of money by their ransom. The fleets with corn for the supply of the city were intercepted, and Rome was threatened with a famine.

7. Fleets and armies had at various times been sent against the pirates, but without success. Publius Servilius, with a strong squadron, dispersed their naval armament, captured several towns on the coast of Lycia, and subjugated all Isauria; but he had hardly returned to Rome when the sea again swarmed with pirates; and such was their audacity, that they laid siege to the city of Syracuse.

8. In this state of things, the tribune Gabinus proposed that one of the consuls should take the command against the pirates, and be vested with absolute power for three years, over the whole Mediterranean and its coasts, to a distance of fifty miles inland, and authority to make levies and take money out of the treasury at his pleasure.

9. Though no person was named, every one knew that Pompey was meant in this proposal. The aristocratic party exerted themselves to the utmost against the passage of the law, and in the debates which took place in the forum such a clamor was raised, that a crow, which was flying over the place, fell down stunned. The measure was finally carried, and Pompey was invested with the command.

10. Such was the general confidence in his talents, that the price of corn immediately fell to its usual level. Pompey did not disappoint these favorable anticipations. He sent powerful fleets, well supplied with troops, along the whole coast of the Mediterranean, which soon cleared the sea of the pirates, and forced them to take refuge in their strong-holds in Cilicia.

11. Pompey pursued them to that country, captured all their ships, and compelled them to surrender the fortified places in which they had taken shelter. Thus, within the space of a few months, this powerful band of marauders was completely broken up, and the prisoners were distributed as colonists among the towns of Asia Minor.

12. Pompey then undertook the management of the war against Mithridates, king of Pontus, who had been driven by Lucullus, the Roman general, to take refuge in Armenia. Pompey, with great ease and expedition, subdued Mithridates, and established the Roman dominion over the greater part of western Asia.

13. But while he was thus gathering laurels in remote regions, and adding large territories to the republic, Rome itself narrowly escaped destruction from the conspiracy of Catiline.

7. What armaments were sent against them? 8. What proposal was made by Gabinus? 9. What was the consequence? 10. What was the confidence of the Romans in Pompey? 11. What was his success? 12. What of the war against Mithridates?

CHAPTER LXXXVII.

Conspiracy of Catiline.*Cicero speaking in the Senate against Catiline*

1. CATILINE was a man of noble birth, sullied, however, by the most disgraceful debaucheries and infamous crimes. He was singularly constituted, both by art and nature, for intrigues and conspiracies. He possessed courage equal to the most desperate attempts, and eloquence which gave a specious color to the most dangerous ambition.

2. Ruined in his fortune, profligate in his manners, vigilant and persevering in the pursuit of his aims, he was insatiable after wealth, only with a view to lavish it on his abandoned pleasures. Having contracted immense debts by his extravagances, he resolved to extricate himself by any means, however iniquitous.

3. He had collected around him a vast number of persons of desperate fortunes, either involved in bankruptcy or dreading the punishment due to their crimes — all, in fact, who had anything to hope from a revolution. He sought by every means to inveigle young men of family, and for this purpose spared no expense to gratify their vices. Some of the first men in Rome, magistrates, senators and knights, and several women of rank, were his associates.

4. The recent examples of Marius and Sulla stimulated Catiline to attempt making himself master of the republic. He assembled a meeting of his most trustworthy associates, and opened to them his

LXXXVII. — 1. Who was Catiline? 2. What were his character and designs? 3. Who were his associates? 4. What did he propose to them? 5. How did the conspirators

plan. He represented them as the most oppressed and wretched of mortals, and their rulers as the most inexorable tyrants; he promised them, in case of his success, the abolition of debts, the proscription of the wealthy, and rapine and plunder for all his friends.

5. The conspiracy was agreed upon, and it is said that the conspirators, before they separated, bound themselves by an oath, drinking human blood mingled with wine. It was resolved among them that a general insurrection should be raised throughout Italy, the different parts of which were assigned to different leaders.

6. Rome was to be set on fire in several places at once, and Catiline, at the head of an army raised in Etruria, was, in the general confusion, to possess himself of the city, and massacre all the senators. Lentulus, one of his profligate assistants, who had been a magistrate in the city, was to preside in their general councils.

7. Cethegus, a man of rank and influence, but who was carried away by the wish to gratify his revenge against Cicero, was to direct the massacre in the city, and Cassius was to arrange the business of setting fire to the houses.

8. The great obstacle to the success of the conspiracy, was the vigilance of Cicero, who was now consul, and had raised himself to that high office by his consummate eloquence and skill in political affairs. His murder was deemed a necessary preliminary to the undertaking.

9. Two of the conspirators undertook this task, on the morning after the secret conference. Cicero, however, had previously obtained a knowledge of the designs of Catiline. By the instrumentality of a female named Fulvia, he had bribed Curius, her lover, one of the conspirators, and thus gained intelligence of all their proceedings. The assassins were foiled in their attempt.

10. While the whole city was thrown into alarm by rumors of the danger, Catiline had the hardihood to present himself in the senate-house, where Cicero, inflamed with indignation at the sight of him, poured forth such a torrent of invective upon the head of the bold conspirator that he was overwhelmed with confusion and unable to reply.

11. The whole senate cried out, calling him a public enemy and a parricide. Catiline then flung off the mask, and exclaimed in a fury that he would quench the flames raised around him in the ruins of his country. So saying, he hastened away.

CHAPTER LXXXVIII.

Overthrow of Catiline.

1. AFTER a short conference with Lentulus and Cethegus, Catiline left Rome by night with a small retinue, and proceeded toward

bind themselves? 6. What was their plan? 7. What of Cethegus and Cassius? 8. What obstacle lay in their way? 9. How did Cicero escape assassination? 10. What scene took place at the senate-house? 11. What was done by Catiline?

Eturia, where Manlius, one of the conspirators, was raising an army to support him. In the mean time Cicero took proper measures to secure the city.

2. Catiline's associates attempted to form an alliance with the Allobroges, a people of Gaul, who had sent ambassadors to petition the senate for some relief from the taxes with which they were oppressed. These ambassadors betrayed the negotiations to Cicero, who managed the matter so well that he arrested the chiefs of the conspiracy with the proofs of guilt on their persons.

3. After a warm debate in the senate, it was resolved that the traitors should be put to death. Julius Cæsar, who was now fast rising into notice as the leader of the popular party, stood almost alone in protesting against the dangerous precedent of violating the Porcian law, which forbade the capital punishment of a Roman citizen.

4. Lentulus, Cethegus and Cassius, with several others, were immediately conveyed to the Mamertine prison and strangled. Catiline, in the mean time, had raised a force of twelve thousand men; but only a fourth part of these were completely armed; the rest had been furnished with such weapons as chance afforded — lances, darts and clubs.

5. Catiline refused at first to enlist the slaves, who flocked to him in great numbers, but trusted to the strength of the conspiracy in the city. But on the approach of the consul Antonius, who was sent with an army against him, and hearing that his accomplices in Rome had been put to death, he became convinced that his cause was ruined.

6. He now attempted to save himself by rapid marches towards Gaul, but the passes of the Apennines were strongly guarded; the consular army approached, and he was hemmed in on every side. Catiline, seeing his escape cut off, resolved to give battle to Antonius, and the armies met near Pistoria.

7. The conspirators fought with the utmost desperation, but were slain to a man, B. C. 62. The suppression of this conspiracy was the most glorious act in the life of Cicero. The Romans unanimously declared that he had saved the republic, and the senate bestowed upon him the honorable title of FATHER OF HIS COUNTRY.

CHAPTER LXXXIX.

Rebellion of Spartacus.

1. SERTORIUS, after the death of Marius and Cinna, had fled to Spain, where he established an independent republic. Pompey and

LXXXVIII. — 1. What measures were next taken by Catiline and Cicero? 2. What of the Allobroges? 3. What took place in the senate? 4. What was done to the conspirators? 5. What preparations were made by Catiline? 6. How did he attempt to escape? 7. What became of him? What title did the Romans bestow upon Cicero?

Metellus were sent against him, but they were defeated in every battle, although they were esteemed the best generals of the age.

2. The Romans were compelled to abandon the enterprise against Sertorius, but the officers of this general, being jealous of his fame and authority, conspired against him and put him to death. The loss of their able general was the ruin of the Spanish republic; the conspirators, destitute of talents, were unable to supply the place of Sertorius, and Pompey was soon enabled to establish the Roman authority in Spain.

3. About this period Rome was disturbed by the rebellion of Spartacus. This person was originally a Thracian shepherd; and having been brought to Rome as a captive, was trained up for one of the gladiators, a class of unhappy wretches whom the Romans employed to fight and murder one another in the amphitheatre, for their amusement.

4. Spartacus, with thirty of his companions, escaped from their confinement at Capua, and took to the highway. Their numbers were quickly augmented by fugitives and desperadoes of every sort, and Spartacus, with ten thousand men under his command, at length emerged from the mountains of Campania, and began to lay waste the country.

5. His army increased every day, and became so well disciplined as to defeat two Roman consuls who were sent against them. The prætor Crassus was then placed at the head of a third army. Spartacus at first obtained some advantages over him, and Crassus began to despair of success; but at length the Romans gained a decisive victory, B. C. 71, and put to the sword twelve thousand of the gladiator's army.

6. Spartacus fought to the last; when wounded in the legs, he fought upon his knees, wielding his sword in one hand and his buckler in the other. When he was overpowered by an irresistible force, he sunk and expired upon a heap of Romans who had fallen beneath his sword.

7. A portion of the army of Spartacus, however, rallied after his defeat, and being routed by Pompey, this ambitious leader claimed a great portion of the glory which was due to Crassus.

CHAPTER XC.

The First Triumvirate.

1 THE overthrow of Catiline seemed only to leave an open theatre for the ambitious projects of other leaders. Pompey and Crassus had for some time been jealous of each other; but Cæsar, whose

LXXXIX. — 1. What of Sertorius? 2. How did he perish? 3. Who was Spartacus? 4. How did he begin his war with the Romans? 5. What success had Crassus against him? 6. Describe the death of Spartacus? 7. What of Pompey?

abilities were now known and valued, resolved to turn their rivalry to his own advantage.

2. This celebrated man was descended from illustrious ancestors, but he warmly espoused the popular interests at his first entrance into public life. Shortly after the death of Sulla, he procured the recall of those whom the dictator had banished. By acts similar to this, he became a favorite with the people.

3. With consummate skill he applied himself to the task of reconciling Pompey and Crassus, knowing that the result would be favorable to his own elevation. He succeeded so well that he persuaded them to forget all their old animosities, and combine with himself in a scheme for dividing the command of the republic between them.



Cæsar, Crassus and Pompey, dividing the Republic

4. They agreed that nothing should be done in the commonwealth without their mutual concurrence. This union was called the First Triumvirate, which was established B. C. 59. They were supported in their project by Clodius, a man of profligate character, but possessing influence with the people. His chief object, on this occasion, was to wreak his vengeance on Cicero, for having given evidence against him on a criminal trial.

5. To do this more effectually, Clodius caused himself to be transferred from the patrician to the plebeian order, and then becoming a candidate for the tribuneship, was elected without much opposition. By the exertions of Clodius, a decree of banishment was pronounced against Cicero; but the great orator was honorably recalled at the end of a year, and restored to his dignity and estates.

X.C. — 1. What followed the overthrow of Catiline? 2. What of Julius Cæsar? 3. How did he manage Pompey and Crassus? 4. What of the First Triumvirate? 5. What was done by Clodius? What happened to Cicero? 6. How did the consuls divide their government? 7. What of Gaul?

6. While Clodius by his violence kept the city in constant agitation. Pompey and Crassus were again elected consuls together. The former chose Spain for his province, the latter Syria, hoping that its wealth would afford a prey to his boundless avarice.

7. Gaul was allotted to Cæsar. This country was peopled by fierce and powerful nations, most of them unsubdued, and the remainder only under a nominal subjection to Rome. As this was an appointment rather to a conquest than to an administration, the government was granted him for five years, as if by its length to compensate for its danger.

CHAPTER XCI.

Julius Cæsar in Gaul.

1. CÆSAR's victorious career in Gaul lasted nearly eight years. but it would be impossible, within the limits of this history, to enumerate the battles which he fought and the states he subdued during this period. He first marched against the Helvetians, whom he defeated, killing nearly two hundred thousand of them in battle. The Germans, commanded by their king, Ariovistus, were next cut off, with the loss of eighty thousand men, their monarch himself narrowly escaping in a little boat across the Rhine.

2. The Belgæ next encountered the Roman arms, and received so terrible an overthrow that the rivers and marshes were choked and heaped up by the piles of the slain. The Nervians, who were the most warlike of those barbarous nations, defended themselves valiantly for a short time.

3. In one battle the Romans were in danger of being utterly routed, but Cæsar, hastily snatching up a buckler, rushed through his troops into the midst of the enemy, and turned the fortune of the day, the barbarians being repulsed with a terrible carnage. The Celtic Gauls were next brought under subjection, and after these all the Gallic nations from the Mediterranean to the British Channel.

4. Stimulated by the desire of further conquest, Cæsar crossed over into Britain, B. C. 54, alleging as an excuse for the invasion, that the inhabitants had furnished supplies to his enemies. A report of a pearl-fishery on the British shores is supposed to have supplied a stronger motive to his avarice.

5. On approaching the coast, near Dover cliffs, he found them covered with armed men; and sailing along a few miles further, he landed at Deal, though vigorously opposed by the natives. At length, terrified at Cæsar's power, they sent to sue for peace.

6. Some hostages had been given, when a spring tide suddenly damaged the Roman fleet, and the Britons resolved to try the chance of a battle. They attacked one of the legions while it was foraging,

XCI. — 1. What of Cæsar's success in Gaul? 2, 3. The Belgæ and Nervians; 4. What of the invasion of Britain? 5. Where did Cæsar land? 6. What happened: he

and Cæsar had some difficulty in saving it. They next assailed the Roman camp, but were repulsed.

7. Cæsar, who had neither cavalry nor provisions, thought it best to return to Gaul, and readily made peace with the Britons; he then departed, and wrote a letter to the senate, giving an account of what he called his victory in Britain; for this a thanksgiving was decreed at Rome.

8. The following year he invaded Britain a second time, with a much stronger force. He fought several battles with the natives, defeated their king, Cassibelan, crossed the Thames, and captured his chief town. The Britons, however, were far behind the Gauls in civilization, and their towns were nothing more than fortresses in the woods, without walls; their houses were mere wigwams.

9. Having regulated the tributes to be paid by the conquered tribes, he returned to Gaul. The tributes, however, were never paid, and the Romans gained nothing by the invasion except some little knowledge of the island.

10. The conquest of Gaul was completed B. C. 50. Cæsar established a system of administration for the country, imposing upon it an annual tribute; and having thus secured it under the Roman dominion, he prepared to carry out his ambitious designs by seizing upon the sovereignty of the republic for which he had made this acquisition.

11. The military talent displayed by Cæsar, in the subjugation of Gaul, is sufficient to place him in the first rank of generals. But we must bear in mind that in this brilliant achievement, nations were robbed and innocent people were slaughtered without mercy, that the renown of many victories might pave the way to the overthrow of the liberties of Rome.

12. We are told that Cæsar captured eight hundred towns and cities, subdued three hundred nations, and defeated in battle three millions of men, of whom one million were slain, and another million taken and sold for slaves. All this misery was inflicted that one man might be great!

CHAPTER XCII.

Parthian Expedition of Crassus.

1. CRASSUS, on taking possession of his province, projected an expedition against the Parthians, hoping to enrich himself by the plunder of that people. He crossed the Euphrates with a large army, and began to ravage Mesopotamia. Several of the Greek towns in that quarter submitted without opposition, but instead of pushing his conquests without delay, Crassus returned to Syria to

Romans? 7. What was the result of this invasion? 8. When was the invasion repeated? What was its success? 9. What did the Romans gain by their invasions? 10. What of the conquest of Gaul? What did Cæsar next prepare? 11, 12. What was the character of his wars in Gaul?

pass the winter, thus giving the Parthians leisure to collect their forces.

2. He spent the time here in amassing money. A Parthian embassy came to complain of his acts of aggression, as their nation had given the Romans no just cause for war. Crassus boastfully replied, that he would give his answer in Seleucia, a suburb of Ctesiphon, the Parthian capitol. The eldest of the envoys laughed, and showing the palm of his hand, said, "Crassus, hairs will grow there before you see Seleucia."

3. The Roman soldiers, when they learned the numbers of the Parthians, and their mode of fighting, were dispirited. The soothsayers announced evil signs in the victims. The officers of Crassus advised him to pause before deciding upon this dangerous undertaking, but in vain.

4. To as little effect did the Armenian prince, Artabazus, counsel him to march through Armenia, which was a mountainous country, and unfavorable to cavalry, in which the strength of the Parthians lay. He replied that he would go through Mesopotamia, where he had left many brave Romans in garrison.

5. The Armenian, who brought six thousand horse to join Crassus, and had promised as many more, saw the desperate character of the undertaking, and retired. Crassus passed the Euphrates at Zeugma. The thunder roared, lightnings flashed, and other ominous signs appeared, but nothing could stop him.

6. He took his march along the eastern bank of the river. No enemy appeared, and Cassius, one of his officers, advised to keep on the borders of the stream till they should reach the point nearest Seleucia; but an Arab emir, named Akbar, who had been on friendly terms with the Romans when Pompey was there, joined Crassus, and assured him that the Parthians were collecting their most valuable property with the intention of flying to Hyrcania and Scythia; for which reason he urged him to push on without delay.

7. This account was false, and designed to lead the Romans to their ruin. Crassus, however, trusting to the deceitful Arab, left the river, and entered on the wide plain of Mesopotamia. The Arab led the way, and when he had brought the Roman army to the place agreed on with the Parthians, he rode off, assuring Crassus that it was for his advantage.

CHAPTER XCIII.

Disasters of Crassus.

1. THE Romans now began to discover signs of treachery, for on the same day a party of horse sent forward to reconnoitre fell in with

XCIII.—1. What expedition was planned by Crassus? How did he commence it? 2. What of the Parthian embassy? 3. What of the soldiers and soothsayers? 4. What of Artabazus? 5. What of the passage of the Euphrates? 6. Of Cassius and Akbar? How was Crassus deceived?

the enemy, and were nearly all killed. Crassus was perplexed, but still marched on, drawing up his infantry in a square, with his cavalry on the flanks. They reached a stream, where his officers wished him to halt for the night and try to gain further intelligence, but he persisted in advancing, and at length came in sight of the enemy.

2. The Parthian commander, however, kept the greater part of his forces out of view, and those who appeared had their armor covered to deceive the Romans. On a given signal the Parthians began to beat their kettle-drums, and when they thought this unusual sound had struck terror to the hearts of the Romans, they flung off their coverings, and appeared glittering in helms and corslets of steel.

3. Then, pouring in multitudes round the solid mass of the Roman army, they discharged showers of arrows upon them, camels being at hand laden with fresh supplies of missiles. The Roman light troops essayed in vain to drive them off, and Crassus ordered his son to charge them with a body of cavalry.

4. The Parthians gave way and drew them on, but when at a sufficient distance from the main army, they turned upon their pursuers, riding round and round, raising such a dust that the Romans could not see to defend themselves. Great numbers were slain, and at length young Crassus broke through the enemy with a party of horsemen, and reached the top of a hill.

5. There the Parthians again surrounded him; and at length, being wounded and seeing no hope of escape, he caused his shield-bearer to kill him. The Parthians cut off his head, and stuck it on the point of a spear. Crassus was advancing to the relief of his son, when he heard the roll of the Parthian drums, and presently saw the enemy with the bloody head elevated in the air.

6. The Romans were struck with consternation at the sight. Crassus vainly tried to encourage them, crying out that the loss was his, not theirs. All day the Parthians hung upon their front and flanks, galling them with clouds of arrows. At night they withdrew, and Crassus now began to give way to despair.

7. A council of war was held, and it was resolved to retreat under cloud of the darkness. This was immediately carried into effect, but the wailings of the sick and wounded, who were left behind, informed the Parthians of the movement. However, as it was not their custom to fight by night, they remained quiet till morning.

XCIIL. — 1. What disaster first befell the army of Crassus? 2, 3, 4. How did the Parthians attack the Romans? 5. What of the death of young Crassus? 6. What was the conduct of his father? What of the retreat of the Romans?

CHAPTER XCIV.

Death of Crassus.

1. THE next morning the Parthians took possession of the deserted camp, slaughtering four thousand men whom they found in it; they then pursued the retreating army, and cut off the stragglers. The Romans succeeded in reaching the town of Carrhæ, where they had a garrison. The Parthian commander, to gain time, made proposals of peace, but after a while it appeared that he was insincere, and Crassus marched away from Carrhæ in the night, under the guidance of a Greek.

2. This guide proved treacherous, and led the army into a place full of marshes and ditches. Cassius, who had distrusted him in season, turned back and saved himself, with a body of five hundred cavalry. Octavius, the second in command, having had faithful guides, secured a position among some hills, with his division of five thousand men, and enabled Crassus to escape from the marshes, after he had been assailed in that dangerous position by the Parthians.

3. The latter now, apprehensive that the Romans would save themselves in the night, released some of their prisoners, declaring that their king did not wish to carry matters to extremities. Further to promote this stratagem, the commander, with a number of his officers, rode to the hill where Crassus was stationed, with their bows unbent, and the commander, holding out his hand, called on Crassus to come down and meet him.

4. The Roman soldiers were overjoyed at these signs of amity, but Crassus put no faith in them. At length, after urging and pressing, they began to abuse and threaten him. Crassus then took his officers to witness the force that was put on him, and went down, accompanied by Octavius, and some of his other officers.

5. The Parthians at first affected to receive him with respect, and brought a horse for him to mount; but they soon contrived to pick a quarrel with their prisoners, and killed them all on the spot. Quarter was then offered to the troops, and most of them surrendered.

6. Twenty thousand of the Romans were killed and ten thousand made prisoners in this disastrous expedition, which was undertaken from the basest and most sordid motives, without a shadow of justice. The Parthians, it is said, poured melted gold down the throat of Crassus, after having cut off his head, in reproach of his insatiate avarice.

XCIV. — 1. What of the Roman camp and army? 2. How was Crassus betrayed? What of Cassius and Octavius? 3. What stratagem was practised by the Parthians? 4. How did they succeed? 5. What of the death of Crassus? 6. What was the loss of the Romans in this war? How did the Parthians serve the dead body of Crassus?

CHAPTER XCV.

Rivalry of Pompey and Cæsar.*Pompey.*

1. WHEN the news of the defeat and death of Crassus reached Rome, the disaster to the national arms caused immense grief and mortification. The loss of the general gave the people no concern, yet this was in reality the greater misfortune of the two, for he alone had the power to keep Cæsar and Pompey in friendship.

2. The removal of Crassus now left in the Roman world only these two competitors for the sovereign power, so far superior were they in weight and influence to all other men. There were at this time in the republic two parties, one for maintaining the constitution as it then was, the other for revolution. It was hardly possible, therefore, to avoid a civil contest, in which the two parties should range themselves in opposition under these two eminent men.

3. Pompey at first favored all the projects of Cæsar, and procured him a prolongation of his command, and supplies of troops. But

XCV. — 1. How did the disaster of Crassus affect the Romans? 2. What was the state of parties at Rome? 3, 4. What of the rivalry of Pompey and Cæsar? 5. What

he soon became envious of exploits that obscured the fame of his own achievements. His partisans began to detract from the brilliant character of Cæsar's victories, and many of that general's official letters were suppressed by the senate.

4. It soon became obvious that the jealousies of these great rivals could be settled only on the field of battle, and their adherents began to prepare for the combat long before the principals had any decided inclination to commence hostilities. When Cæsar became aware of the proceedings against him, he demanded permission to hold the consulship while absent, together with a prolongation of his government in Gaul.

5. This was done for the purpose of trying whether Pompey would openly oppose him. The latter remained apparently inactive, but he secretly employed two of his partisans, who maintained in the senate that the laws did not permit any one absent to stand as a candidate for the office of consul.

6. Cæsar well knew that there was no safety for him except at the head of his army, for Cato and others had already threatened to impeach him for illegal acts done in his consulate; he therefore chose to remain in Gaul till matters were further advanced.

7. He dismissed two of his legions which the senate ordered home, having previously attached both officers and soldiers to his interest by bounties. He further strengthened his party at Rome by lavishing bribes in great profusion, particularly on Caius Curio, a tribune of the people, who had great influence in various ways.

CHAPTER XCVI.

Civil War.

1. THE senate, who were now devoted to Pompey, passed a decree recalling Cæsar from his government. But Curio placed an obstacle in the way of this movement, by proposing that Pompey and Cæsar should both lay down their offices. The apparent fairness and impartiality of the proposal threw Pompey and his party into great perplexity. Some time was wasted in debates and negotiations.

2. Pompey was as eager for war as Cæsar possibly could be. The joy manifested by the people on the occasion of his recovery from an illness gave him the most exaggerated notion of his influence over them. He was moreover completely misled by the accounts which he had received of the disaffection of Cæsar's army, and the provinces.

3. He therefore derided the fears of his friends, who dreaded Cæsar's power; and when it was remarked that there were no troops in Italy to oppose him, he replied, "Wherever I stamp my foot,

took place in the senate? 6. What course was taken by Cæsar? 7. How did he strengthen his party?

XCVI.—1. What was done by Curio? 2, 3. What of Pompey's expectations?

legions will spring up!" The senate at length declared Cæsar a public enemy, in case he did not give up his command by a certain day.

4. It was resolved that troops should be raised in every part of Italy, and that Pompey should be supplied with money from the public treasury. War, in fact, was declared against Cæsar. Antony and Cassius, disguised as slaves, left Rome secretly and joined Cæsar, who had by this time entered the north of Italy, and was at Ravenna with one of his legions.

5. Cæsar forthwith assembled his soldiers, and complained to them of the treatment he had received from the senate. The army having declared its resolution to stand by him, he sent off orders to his legates in Gaul to join him by forced marches with all their troops. He then took up his march for Rome.



Cæsar at the Rubicon

6. On reaching the Rubicon, a little stream flowing into the Adriatic, near the modern city of Rimini, he halted. The Romans had ever been taught to regard this river as the sacred boundary of their domestic empire, and Cæsar was arrested upon its banks by an impression of terror at the greatness and audacity of his enterprise.

7. He could not pass it without transgressing the laws; he therefore pondered for some time in fixed melancholy, looking earnestly upon the stream, and debating with himself whether he should venture to profane it. "If I pass this river," said he, "what miseries shall I bring upon my country! And if I stop short, I am undone!" At length, yielding to a sudden impulse, he exclaimed, "Let the die be cast!" and spurred his horse into the stream.

4. What were the plans of his party? 5. Cæsar's first movements? 6, 7. His conduct at the Rubicon?

CHAPTER XCVII.

Flight of Pompey from Rome.

1. THE news that Cæsar had passed the Rubicon with his army caused the greatest consternation at Rome, where it was believed the conqueror of Gaul meditated a general massacre. The citizens fled into the country for safety, while the country people flocked to the city for the same purpose.

2. Pompey was overwhelmed with confusion. "Where is now," asked Favonius, a sarcastic senator of his party, "the army that was to rise out of the earth at your bidding? Let us see if it will appear at the stamp of your foot." Pompey, in fact, was completely deceived in his expectations of the public spirit of the people.

3. His troops were all deserting to Cæsar; the lower orders of the people were either favorable to the latter or wished for a change, and it was evident that Italy could not be defended against him. The senate, therefore, and all Pompey's partisans abandoned Rome, leaving the public treasury with an enormous sum of money in it untouched.

4. All Italy was subdued by Cæsar in sixty days, and Pompey sailed from Brundisium for Greece, abandoning his country to his rival. Sicily and Sardinia speedily followed the fate of the peninsula. Elated by this rapid success, Cæsar returned to Rome, where the tribune Metellus making some remonstrance against his proceedings as contrary to the laws, Cæsar told him that it was no time to talk of laws, but that all must obey him.

5. He then went to the public treasury; the keys were not to be found, and a smith was sent for to break open the door. Metellus again interposed, but Cæsar threatened to put him to death, saying, "Know, young man, that it is easier to do than to say." Cæsar having broken open the treasury, took out all the money, and even the most sacred deposits.

6. After a stay of six or seven days in Rome, he departed to attack Pompey's lieutenants in Spain and Gaul. He met with unexpected resistance from the city of Marseilles, but leaving a detachment to besiege the place, he continued his march to Ilerda, where he found his enemies posted under the command of Afranius and Petreius.

7. An indecisive battle was fought here, but Cæsar, taking advantage of the incapacity of his opponents, soon reduced them to such straits that they were forced to surrender at discretion. The reduction of the remainder of the Spanish peninsula was soon accomplished, and Cæsar returned to finish the siege of Marseilles. His presence soon forced the citizens to surrender; their lives were spared, but they were forced to give up all their arms, magazines and money.

XC VII.—1. What was the first consequence of Cæsar's passage of the Rubicon? 2. What was the condition of Pompey? 3. How were the people divided? 4. What was Cæsar's success? 5. What of Metellus and the treasury? 6, 7. What of Cæsar in Spain?

CHAPTER XCVIII.

Pompey and Cæsar in Greece.

1. DURING these events Pompey was active in making preparations in Greece to oppose the arms of Cæsar. All the monarchs of the east, in alliance with Rome, had declared in Pompey's favor, and sent him large supplies. He had attacked Antony and Dolabella, who commanded Cæsar's forces in that part of the empire, and defeated them, taking the latter prisoner.

2. Crowds of the most distinguished Roman citizens and nobles came every day to join Pompey. He had at one time above two hundred senators in his camp, among whom were Cicero and Cato, whose approbation of his cause was deemed equivalent to an army. Cæsar resolved to pursue Pompey into Greece, but his inferiority in naval force exposed his soldiers to great dangers and hardships in their passage across the Adriatic from Brundisium to Dyrrachium.

3. Cæsar himself, having crossed with a portion of his army, and finding the remainder delayed in their passage, re-crossed the strait in an open fishing-boat. The fisherman, who was ignorant of the name of his passenger, was alarmed at the roughness of the sea, but the dictator encouraged him with the memorable words, "Fear nothing; you carry Cæsar and his fortunes."

4. Both armies now being in the field, marched and counter-marched through a tedious campaign, in which both leaders showed themselves equally reluctant to hazard an engagement. From Epirus the armies moved into Thessaly, and finally met on the plain of Pharsalia, to contend for the empire of the Roman world.

5. Pompey's army consisted of forty-five thousand infantry and seven thousand cavalry, besides light troops. Cæsar's force amounted only to twenty-two thousand infantry, and one thousand cavalry; but Pompey's superiority of numbers was balanced by their inferior quality; his soldiers were mostly raw levies, while Cæsar's army was composed of hardy veterans, familiar with victory, and full of the highest confidence in themselves and their leader.

6. When Pompey's officers, however, saw the inferior numbers of their enemy, their confidence was raised to the highest pitch. They looked upon victory as certain, and disputed about dividing the spoils before the battle was fought. They disposed of all the dignities and offices in the republic, and assigned the consuls for several years to come.

7. Scipio, Spinther and Domitius had an angry contest, which of them should be rewarded with the dignity of Pontifex Maximus, which was then held by Cæsar. Others sent to Rome to hire houses suitable to the offices which they expected to enjoy after the victory.

XCVIII. — 1. How were Pompey's affairs in the east? 2. What of Pompey's camp? 3. What of Cæsar's crossing the strait? 4. Where did the rival armies meet? 5. What were the respective forces? 6. What was the confidence of Pompey's party? 7. What of their disputes?

Pompey, who was naturally superstitious, had been greatly encouraged by favorable signs in the entrails of victims, and resolved to risk a general engagement on the 30th of July, B. C. 48.

CHAPTER XCIX.

Battle of Pharsalia.

1. CÆSAR's army was divided into three bodies, Domitius Calvinus commanded the centre, Mark Antony the left, and Cæsar the right wing, which last was to be opposed to Pompey, and which consisted of Cæsar's favorite tenth legion.

2. The appearance of Pompey's cavalry in one spot indicated to Cæsar the designs of his antagonist. He therefore drew six cohorts from his rear, and concealing them behind his right, he instructed them to wait till the approach of Pompey's cavalry, and then to aim their spears in the faces of the horsemen, who, consisting of the young nobility of Rome, dreaded a scratch in the face more than the severest wound in the body.

3. He then placed his own handful of cavalry on the right of the tenth legion. The signal being given for battle, Cæsar's line advanced, while that of Pompey awaited the attack without quitting its position. The assailants, when they saw their enemy motionless, suddenly came to a halt. A short pause ensued; both sides gazed at each other in a sort of amazement. But this feeling was of short duration.

4. Cæsar's troops sprung forward, darted their javelins, and drew their swords. Pompey then ordered his cavalry to charge; Cæsar's men gave way, but the reserve of six cohorts now advanced, and striking at the faces of the enemy, soon produced the effect which had been anticipated.

5. The effeminate young Romans, who valued themselves upon their beauty, were intimidated by the unsightly wounds which they saw inflicted upon their companions, and thought of nothing but saving themselves. They were soon put to the rout, and fled in a most disorderly manner, leaving the archers and slingers to be cut to pieces.

6. The successful cohorts now advanced against the flank and rear of Pompey's line, which made a brave resistance till Cæsar's third line attacked them in front, and forced them to fly to their camp. The auxiliaries had fled while Pompey's right wing was fighting with great bravery.

7. Cæsar, perceiving that the issue of the conflict was no longer doubtful, cried out to his men to pursue the strangers, but to spare

XCIX. — 1. How was Cæsar's army commanded? 2. How did he instruct his cohorts? 3, 4. How did the battle begin? 5. What was the conduct of Pompey's young men? 6. What was the success of the cohorts? 7. What was the success of Cæsar?

the Romans. The auxiliary troops were slaughtered in great numbers, but the Romans laid down their arms and received quarter. Notwithstanding the overthrow of the army, Cæsar considered his victory as incomplete till he was in possession of Pompey's camp.

CHAPTER C.

Death of Pompey

1. THE cohorts and Thracians, who guarded the camp, made an obstinate resistance, but they were driven from the trenches and put to flight. The victory being accomplished, Cæsar cast a look over the battle-field, and saw it covered with the dead bodies of his countrymen. He felt, or pretended to feel, a deep distress at the sight, and exclaimed in a mournful tone, "*They would have it so!*"

2. Cæsar, however, treated the vanquished with great humanity, and the honors which he acquired as a conqueror were soon rendered more glorious by the clemency and moderation which he exhibited in his subsequent conduct. Twenty-four thousand of Pompey's men laid down their arms and enlisted in Cæsar's army.

3. Pompey lost all presence of mind as soon as he saw his troops give way. He took to flight, and rode with about thirty followers to the gates of Larissa, but would not enter the town, lest the inhabitants should incur the anger of Cæsar. He then proceeded to the vale of Tempe, and at the mouth of the Peneus, got on board a merchant vessel which he found lying there.

4. Thence he sailed to the mouth of the Strymon, and having obtained some money from his friends at Amphipolis, proceeded to the island of Lesbos. Here he took on board his wife Cornelia, and his son Sextus, and collecting a few vessels he sailed to Cilicia, and thence to Cyprus.

5. It is said that he consulted with his friends whether he should seek a refuge with the king of Parthia, or king Juba in Africa, or the young king of Egypt, whose father had been restored to the throne through his influence some years before. The last was decided on, and Pompey sailed for Egypt.

6. Arriving at Pelusium, he learnt that the young king was at that place with an army, being engaged in a war with his sister Cleopatra, whom their father had made joint heir of the throne. Pompey sent to request his protection. The king's ministers, either fearing Pompey's designs, or despising his fallen fortunes, resolved on his death.

7. They sent Achillas, a captain of the guard, and Septimius, who had been a Roman centurion, with some others, in a small boat, to invite him to land. He was requested to come into the boat, as the

C.—1. What was the behavior of Cæsar on his victory? 2. How did he treat the vanquished? 3. What was Pompey's behavior? 4. To what places did he flee? To which country did he last proceed? 6. What happened on his arrival in Egypt?

shore was too shallow for a ship to approach it. He consented, and embracing Cornelia, he entered the boat repeating the lines from Sophocles :

"He who unto a prince's house repairs,
Becomes his slave though he go thither free!"

8. They rowed toward the shore for some time in silence. At length Pompey, turning to Septimius, said, "If I mistake not, you and I have been fellow-soldiers." The latter merely nodded, and Pompey began to read over a speech which he had written in Greek, to pronounce before the king.

9. The boat approached the shore, but as Pompey rose from his seat to land, Septimius stabbed him in the back. Achilles and the others then struck him, and Pompey, seeing death inevitable, drew his mantle over his face, fell, and expired. His head was then cut off, and the body cast upon the beach, where it lay till two of his friends burnt it on a pyre composed of the wreck of a fishing-boat.

10. Such was the end of Pompey the Great, a man of commanding talents, whose private morals were remarkably pure, and whose character was highly amiable. With these virtues, he was vain and ambitious, and could not brook a rival.

11. He was a better man than his antagonist, yet Cæsar was better fitted for empire, as Pompey had not his rival's energy to restrain the violence of his followers. Cicero feared with good reason that Pompey's victory in the great struggle would have been more sanguinary than that of Cæsar.

CHAPTER CI.

Triumph of Cæsar.

1. THE news of Pompey's death occasioned a fresh division among his friends. Many, who were personally attached to him, and who held out, in hopes of seeing him again at their head, determined to have recourse to the conqueror's clemency. Cornelia returned to Italy, well knowing she had nothing to apprehend from Cæsar.

2. Cato, with Pompey's two sons, marched to join the king of Numidia. Cæsar, immediately after the victory at Pharsalia, began a close pursuit of Pompey, and did not hear of his death till his arrival at Alexandria, when messengers from the Egyptian king brought him the head and signet-ring of Pompey. He turned with disgust from these relics, and ordered the head of his unfortunate rival to be interred with due honor.

3. To show his disapprobation of Egyptian treachery, Cæsar caused a temple to be erected near Pompey's tomb, dedicated to

7. Who were employed to murder him? 8, 9. Describe this act. 10, 11. What was the character of Pompey?

CI. — 1. What was the consequence of Pompey's death? 2. What of Cato? Of Cæsar on his arrival in Egypt? 3. Of Pompey's tomb? Of Cleopatra? 4. Of

Nemesis, the avenging power of cruel deeds. His next task was to arrange the disputed succession of the crown ; but, seduced by the charms of the princess Cleopatra, he showed an undue preference for her interests, and thus induced the partisans of the young king Ptolemy to take up arms.



Cleopatra receiving Cæsar.

4. As Cæsar had brought only a small body of men with him to Alexandria, he was exposed to great danger by this sudden burst of insurrection. A fierce battle was fought in the city. Cæsar set fire to the Egyptian fleet, but unfortunately the flames extended to the celebrated public library, which had been formed by the literary taste and munificence of the Egyptian kings. The greater part of this magnificent collection of the most valuable works of ancient times fell a prey to the flames.

5. After the struggle had been protracted for some time, Cæsar received reinforcements from Syria, which enabled him to triumph over his enemies. From Egypt, he marched against Pharnaces, the son of the great Mithridates, and subdued him so easily that he described the campaign in a letter to the senate, comprised in three words, "*Veni, vidi, vici*," "I came, I saw, I conquered."

6. Having thus composed the affairs of the east, he departed for Rome. He found the affairs of the city in the greatest confusion, caused by the quarrels between Antony and Dolabella. Cæsar with difficulty reconciled them, and then applied himself to the war in Africa against Cato and the sons of Pompey.

7. On his arrival in Africa, Cæsar found his enemies much more formidable than he had expected. But at length he forced them to a decided engagement at Thapsus, where they were defeated with a

Cæsar's danger at Alexandria? Of the public library? 5 Of the war with Pharnaces?

loss of ten thousand men. Leaving a strong body to besiege the place, he next advanced to Utica, which was garrisoned by the celebrated Cato the Younger, whose hostility to Cæsar was inflexible.

8. Cato had formed a little senate or council of three hundred of the Roman traders who resided in the place. When the news of the defeat at Thapsus arrived, he assembled this body, and tried to inspire them with courage and resolution; but finding them disposed to throw themselves on the clemency of Cæsar, he gave up all hopes of defending the town.

9. A body of cavalry, fleeing from the defeat of Thapsus, arriving at this juncture, Cato went out to attempt to engage them to stay, but during his absence the council met and determined on a surrender. Cato then prepared for suicide. He arranged his accounts, and commended his children to the care of a friend.

10. In the evening he bathed and supped as usual with his family, discussing philosophical questions. After supper he took a walk, and then retired to his chamber, where he read over Plato's dialogue on the immortality of the soul. After this he lay down and slept soundly for a few hours. Towards morning he rose and stabbed himself with his sword.

11. The sound of his fall being heard, his friends ran into the room, and a surgeon attempted to bind up his wound. But he thrust them from him, tore open his own bowels, and expired. The war in Africa was finished by the death of Cato, and Cæsar, having given orders for the re-building of Carthage, returned to Rome.

CHAPTER CII.

Dictatorship of Cæsar.

1. On the arrival of Cæsar in Rome, honors of every kind were decreed to him by the obsequious senate. They had already ordered a thanksgiving of forty days, for his African victory, granted him the dictatorship for ten years, and decreed that his chariot should be placed on the capitol opposite the image of Jupiter, with the statue of the dictator standing on a brazen globe, bearing the inscription, "*Cæsar the Demigod.*"

2. Having addressed the senate and the people, assuring them of his clemency and regard for the republic, he prepared to celebrate his triumphs for his various conquests. Four of these took place within one month, the first being for Gaul, the second for Egypt, the third for Pontus, and the fourth for Numidia.

3. The first triumph was the most splendid, but as the procession approached the capitol the axle of the triumphal car broke, and Cæsar was obliged to mount another, which occasioned much delay.

8. Of Cæsar's return to Rome? 7. What success had Cæsar in Africa? 8, 9. What of Cato at Utica? 10, 11. Describe the death of Cato.

CII — 1. What honors did the Romans confer on Cæsar? 2, 3, 4. How did Cæsar

In the second triumph were seen pictures of battles, the pharos of Alexandria on fire, &c.



Julius Cæsar.

4. The third displayed a tablet with the words "VENI, VIDI, VICI!" The golden crowns borne in triumph were two thousand eight hundred and twenty-two in number. Cæsar feasted the people of Rome at twenty-two thousand tables placed in the streets, and to a hundred and fifty thousand citizens he gave ten pecks of corn, ten pounds of oil, and four hundred sesterces apiece. As he returned home from the banquet, lights were borne on each side of him by forty elephants.

5. After this he entertained the people with all sorts of games sham-fights, chariot and horse-races, huntings of wild beasts, &c. His veteran soldiers he rewarded with twenty-four thousand sesterces to each private, forty-eight thousand to each centurion, and ninety-six thousand to each tribune. Besides this pay, they all received donations of land.

6. Cæsar now turned his thoughts to legislation. He confined the judicial power to the senators and knights; he sent eighty thousand citizens away as colonists, and ordered that no freeman between

celebrate his triumphs? 5. How did he entertain the people and reward the soldiers? 6, 7. What were his legislative acts?

twenty and forty years of age should remain more than three years out of Italy.

7. He granted the freedom of the city to all physicians and professors of the liberal arts. To perpetuate his power, he reserved to himself the appointment of one half of those who were to be elected to offices in the state; and at the approach of the elections he always signified to the people what persons he would have chosen for the remaining places.

CHAPTER CIII.

Conspiracy against Cæsar.

1. BUT all the genius of Cæsar, and all the wisdom and clemency which marked his exercise of power, could not compensate in the minds of his countrymen for the crime of elevating himself on the ruins of the republic.

2. It was also rumored that he designed to assume the title of king, and although he already possessed the full authority of a monarch, yet the name was insufferably odious to the Romans. Whether he ever designed to invest himself with that empty honor, must forever remain a secret.

3. Mark Antony, at the feast of Lupercalia, ventured to perform the ceremony of offering him a crown in the full presence of the Roman people. It is supposed that this was done by Cæsar's instigation; but the murmurs of the multitude compelled him to refuse the emblem of regality.

4. The belief that Cæsar was aiming at a throne, however, could not be removed from the minds of great numbers of people, and at length a conspiracy was formed for his destruction. No less than sixty of the senators were implicated in it, and the greater part of them were among Cæsar's adherents during the struggle with Pompey.

5. At the head of the conspiracy were Brutus and Cassius. The former made it his chief glory to boast of being descended from that Brutus who first gave liberty to Rome. The love of freedom seemed to have been transmitted to him with the blood of his ancestors. But though he detested tyranny, he could not forbear feeling a personal attachment to Cæsar, from whom he had received distinguished favors.

6. The conspirators resolved to put their plot in execution in the senate-house, on the ides of March. The augurs had foretold that this day would be fatal to Cæsar. His wife, Calphurnia, dreamed, on the night previous, that she saw him assassinated. These omens affected him in such a manner that he was inclined to defer going to

CIII — 1. How did the Romans feel respecting Cæsar's elevation? 2. What rumor was current respecting him? 3. What of Mark Antony at the Lupercalia? 4. What of the conspiracy against Cæsar? 5. Who were at the head of it? 6. What of the ides of March? Of omens? 7. What happened as Cæsar was going to the senate-house?

the senate on that day ; but one of the conspirators, who called upon him in the morning, represented to him the absurdity of his staying at home because his wife had unlucky dreams.

7. Cæsar was therefore persuaded to go, and the conspiracy was very near being detected. As he passed through the streets, a slave, who was in possession of the secret, attempted to come near him and give information, but was prevented by the crowd.

CHAPTER CIV.

Assassination of Cæsar.



1. ARTEMIDORUS, a Greek philosopher, who had discovered the whole plot, put a paper into the hand of Cæsar, containing an account of it ; but the latter, imagining it to be a common matter of business, gave it, with other papers, to a secretary, without reading it, as was his custom.

2. Having at length entered the senate-house, where the conspirators were prepared to receive him, he met one Spurina, an augur, who had foretold his danger. "Well," said Cæsar, with a smile, "the ides of March are come." "True," replied the augur, "but they are not yet past."

3. As soon as Cæsar had taken his place, the conspirators approached under pretence of saluting him. One of them, Cimber, in a suppliant posture, pretended to sue for the pardon of his brother,

CIV. — 1. What of Artemidorus ? 2. Of Spurina ? 3 4. Describe the death of Cæsar. 5, 6. What of his character and exploits ?

who had been banished by the dictator. The others seconded him with great zeal. Cimber, pretending uncommon earnestness, took hold of the bottom of Cæsar's robe, which prevented him from rising.

4. This was the signal previously concerted, and all immediately rushed upon him. Casca, who was behind, stabbed him first in the shoulder. Cæsar turned upon him, and with his stylus, or steel writing rod, wounded him in the arm. Thrusts were now aimed at the dictator on all sides; he defended himself with great vigor, rushing upon his assailants, and throwing down such as opposed him, till he saw Brutus among the conspirators. From that moment he made no attempt to save himself, but exclaiming, "*And thou too, Brutus!*" he sunk down at the base of Pompey's statue, pierced by twenty-three wounds.

5. Thus perished, in his fifty-sixth year, B. C. 44, Julius Cæsar, the greatest man in all Roman history. As a general, a statesman, an orator, and a man of taste, he is equally the object of admiration. He was free from vanity, clement and generous. But he was also insatiably ambitious; and though not wantonly cruel, as no really great man can be, he could shed torrents of blood to gain a favorite object.

6. Though he enforced the laws when he held the supreme power, he trampled upon them without scruple when they stood in his way. According to the old Valerian law of Rome, Cæsar was legally put to death; yet the consequences of this act were most pernicious to the Roman people.

CHAPTER CV.

Mark Antony.

1. THE conspirators had no sooner accomplished their work, than Brutus, brandishing his bloody dagger, congratulated the senate, and Cicero in particular, on the recovery of Roman liberty. But the senators, seized with fear and astonishment, rushed out of the capitol and hid themselves in their houses.

2. Cæsar's friends had now an opportunity for gratifying their ambition under the pretence of promoting justice. Mark Antony, one of these, distinguished himself above all others. He was a man of moderate abilities, disgraced by habits of vice, and only ambitious of power because it gave a wider range to his immoralities. He was, however, skilled in war, to which he had been trained from his youth.

3. Antony was consul for this year, and in conjunction with Lepidus, a person, like himself, fond of commotions and intrigues, he planned a scheme for seizing upon the chief authority. In pursuance of this design, Lepidus took possession of the forum with a chosen band of soldiers. The next step was to obtain possession of Cæsar's papers and money.

4. The senate was then convened to pronounce whether Cæsar had

CV.—1. What was the behavior of Brutus? Of the senators? 2. Of M. Antony

been a legal magistrate or a tyrannical usurper. This was an embarrassing question. Many of the senators had received all their offices from Cæsar, and had acquired large fortunes by serving him. To vote him an usurper, therefore, would endanger their property; yet to vote him innocent might endanger the state.



Mark Antony

5. In this dilemma they attempted to reconcile the two contradictory opinions; they sanctioned all the acts of Cæsar, and yet granted a pardon to his assassins. This decree was far from satisfying Antony, as it granted security to a number of men who were the avowed enemies of tyranny, and who, he foresaw, would be active in opposing his schemes of restoring absolute power.

6 Seeing, therefore, that the senate had ratified all Cæsar's acts, without distinction, he formed a plan for making him rule after his death. Having obtained possession of the dictator's account books and papers, he bribed his secretary to insert in them whatever he thought proper. By this scheme large sums of Cæsar's money were distributed in a manner favorable to Antony's designs.

3 What was done by Antony and Lepidus? 4. By the senate? 5. How did he lose Antony? 6. How did Antony distribute Cæsar's money?

CHAPTER CVI.

Funeral of Cæsar.*Antony addressing the People on the Death of Cæsar.*

1 ANTONY obtained a decree for the performance of Cæsar's funeral obsequies. The body was carried into the forum with the utmost solemnity, and Antony, who had charged himself with these last duties of friendship, began to work upon the passions of the people by artful appeals to their private interests.

2. He first read to them Cæsar's will, in which he made Octavius, his sister's grandson, his heir, permitting him to take the name of Cæsar, with three fourths of his private fortune. To the people of Rome were left the gardens which he possessed on the other side of the Tiber, and to every citizen three hundred sesterces, or about eleven dollars and a quarter.

3. After reading the will, Antony unfolded Cæsar's bloody robe, pierced by the daggers of the conspirators, and pointed out the number of stabs in it. He also displayed a waxen image, representing the body of Cæsar, all covered with wounds. The people, excited by these artful tricks, could no longer restrain their indignation against the conspirators.

4. They stormed the senate-house, tore up the benches to make a funeral pile for Cæsar's body, and ran with flaming brands to set fire to the houses of Brutus, Cassius, and their associates. These persons, however, being well guarded, repulsed the attacks of the populace with no great difficulty; but perceiving that they were no longer safe in Rome, they withdrew from the city.

CVI. — 1. Who undertook the funeral of Cæsar? 2. What of Cæsar's will? 3. 4. How were the people excited by Antony? What of Brutus and Cassius? 5. How did Anto

5. Antony, having thus accomplished his first purpose, proceeded in his main design with the same cunning. He put on an appearance of moderation, and affected an anxiety to procure an act of amnesty. But having been joined by Octavius, he threw off the mask, and proposed extraordinary honors to the memory of Cæsar, with a religious supplication to him as a divinity.

6. Brutus and Cassius at length discovered that Antony meditated nothing but war, and that their cause was daily growing more desperate; they therefore left Italy, and sought refuge in the East.

7. Octavius, becoming jealous of Antony, joined the party of the senate, and Antony, retiring into Cisalpine Gaul, levied an army of veterans. The senate declared him a public enemy, and sent an army against him, under the consuls Hirtius and Pansa. A battle took place near Modena; both the consuls were killed, but their army was victorious, and Antony fled to Lepidus, in Spain.

CHAPTER CVII.

The Second Triumvirate.

1. OCTAVIUS, who was now at the head of the army, opened a negotiation with Lepidus and Antony, and these three conspirators against the liberties of Rome held a meeting on a little island in one of the branches of the Po. Here, in a conference of three days, a partition of the whole Roman world was made, the fate of thousands of people was determined, and these remorseless conspirators gave up their best friends to be butchered.

2. Lepidus abandoned his brother to the vengeance of his colleague. Antony sacrificed his uncle, and Octavius, to his eternal disgrace, permitted Cicero to be murdered. Thus was formed the Second Triumvirate, who agreed to hold the supreme authority among them for five years. To Antony was assigned Gaul; to Lepidus, Spain; and to Octavius, Africa and the islands of the Mediterranean.

3. It was agreed that Italy and the eastern provinces should remain in common till all the enemies of the Triumvirate were subdued. This bloody work was immediately commenced, and the noblest citizens of Rome were sacrificed to the political hatred and base ambition of the triumvirs.

4. The most illustrious of the victims was Cicero, whose severe and eloquent invectives against Antony had procured him the relentless hatred of that abandoned person. A band of assassins, headed by a tribune whose life Cicero had saved, by defending him in a capital trial, was sent in pursuit of him. He was overtaken near the sea-coast, on the road between Rome and Naples, and murdered on the spot.

ny mask his designs? 6. To what quarter did Brutus and Cassius flee? 7. What of Octavius? Of Antony and the senate?

CVII. — 1. What conspiracy was formed by Octavius, Lepidus, and Antony? 2. What friends did the conspirators sacrifice? How did the Triumvirs divide their power?

5. In the mean time Brutus and Cassius had persuaded the Roman students at Athens to declare for the cause of freedom. The former raised a powerful army in Macedonia; the latter went to Syria, where he was equally successful. Both armies then united at Smyrna, and the sight of such a formidable force began to revive the spirits of the Roman patriots.

6. They first marched against the Rhodians and the Lycians, who had refused their usual contributions to Rome. After having reduced these people to submission, Brutus and Cassius met again at Sardis, where they resolved to hold a private conference. They therefore shut themselves up in a room together, giving orders that no other person should be admitted.

7. Brutus began by reproaching Cassius for selling offices for money, and overtaxing the tributary states. Cassius repelled the imputation of avarice with bitterness, as he knew it to be groundless. The debate grew warm, till from loud speaking they burst into tears.

8. Their friends, who were standing at the door, overheard the increasing vehemence of their voices, and began to tremble for the consequences, till one of them, named Favonius, who valued himself upon a cynical boldness that knew no restraint, entering the room with a jest, calmed their animosity.

CHAPTER CVIII.

Brutus and Cassius.

1. AFTER the interview between these two leaders, Cassius invited Brutus to an entertainment, where freedom and cheerfulness for a while took the place of political cares and anxieties. It was believed that Brutus, on retiring to his tent from this feast, saw a spectre which predicted to him his future fate.

2. In the dead of the night, as the story is told by Plutarch, when the whole camp was perfectly quiet, Brutus, having waked from a short sleep, was engaged, according to his usual custom, in reading by the light of a lamp. On a sudden, he thought he heard a noise as if somebody was entering the tent.

3. Looking toward the door, he perceived it open, and a gigantic figure of frightful aspect standing before him. After a few moments of silence, during which the spectre gazed at him with a stern look, Brutus asked, "Art thou a demon or a mortal, and why comest thou to me?" "I am thy evil genius, Brutus," answered the spectre; "thou shalt see me again at Philippi." "Well, then," returned Brutus, coolly, "we shall meet again."

4. Upon this the phantom disappeared, and Brutus, calling to his servants, asked if they had seen anything. They answered in the negative, and he resumed his studies. Struck with the extraor-

3. What was the character of the war which followed? 4. What was the fate of Cicero?
5. What of Brutus and Cassius in the east? 6, 7, 8. Of their quarrel at Sardis?

CVIII. - 1-5. Relate the story of the apparition of the evil genius of Brutus. 6. What

inary character of this adventure, he mentioned it to Cassius, who ascribed it to an imagination disordered by watching and anxiety.



Brutus.

5. Such is the story of Brutus' evil genius, as it was current in Plutarch's time. The facts, whatever they might have been, were doubtless much embellished by popular rumor before they reached the hands of the biographer.

6. The triumvirs, in the mean time, having taken vengeance on their enemies in Italy, raised a formidable army, of which Antony and Octavius took the command. They passed over into Greece. Brutus and Cassius advanced to meet them by the way of Thrace. The Roman world regarded the approaching armies in breathless suspense. The command of the republic depended on the fate of a single battle.

7. From victory on the one side, they expected freedom; on the other, a sovereign with absolute authority. Brutus was the only man who looked upon these great events with calmness. Indifferent as to success, and satisfied with having done his duty, he said to one of his friends, "If I am victorious, I shall restore liberty to my country; if not, by dying I shall myself be delivered from slavery; my condition is fixed; I run no hazards."

steps were taken by the triumvirs? 7. What of the calmness of Brutus? 8. What

8 The republican army consisted of eighty thousand foot and twenty thousand horse, that of the triumvirs amounted to a hundred thousand foot and thirteen thousand horse. They met on the plains of Philippi, in Macedonia, B. C. 42. Cassius desired to be informed how Brutus intended to act in case they should be unsuccessful.

9. To this Brutus replied, "Formerly, in my writings, I condemned the death of Cato, and maintained that to avoid calamities by suicide is an insolent attempt against Heaven which sends them. But I have since altered my opinion. I have given up my life to my country, and I think I have a right to my own way of ending it. I am resolved, therefore, to exchange a miserable being here for a better hereafter, should fortune turn against me."

10. Cassius, at this answer, embraced him, saying, "My friend, now we may venture to face the enemy, for either we shall be conquerors or we shall have no cause to fear those that are so."

CHAPTER CIX.

Battle of Philippi.

1. THE battle now began. Antony took the sole command of the triumvirate army, as Octavius was sick, or pretended to be so; his courage, indeed, never was apparent in the hour of battle. Antony made a furious attack upon the lines of Cassius, and Brutus on the other hand assaulted the forces which should have been commanded by Octavius.

2. Brutus penetrated as far as the enemy's camp, routed and dispersed the ranks opposed to him. But while his troops were abandoning themselves to plunder, the lines of Cassius were forced, and his cavalry put to flight. This unfortunate commander made every possible effort to rally his infantry, stopping those who fled, and seizing the standards with his own hand.

3. But his valor was insufficient to inspire the timorous fugitives with courage, and at length, despairing of success, he retired to his tent, where he was shortly afterwards found dead. The general opinion was that he had committed suicide; but as his head was found severed from his body, many, with greater probability, believed that he was treacherously murdered by his freedman Pindarus.

4. Brutus, now sole general, assembled the dispersed troops of Cassius, and animated them with fresh hopes of victory. His object was to starve the enemy, who were now in extreme want of provisions, in consequence of the loss of their fleet. But his opinion was overruled by his army, who grew every day more confident of their strength, and more arrogant toward their general.

were the forces of the contending armies? Where did they meet? 9, 10. How did Brutus and Cassius behave on the eve of the battle?

CIX. — 1. How did the battle of Philippi begin? 2. What disaster happened to Cassius? 3. What was his fate? 4. What was the conduct of Brutus? 5. What took

5. At last, after a respite of twenty days, Brutus was compelled to try the fate of another battle. Both armies were drawn out, and they remained a long while in sight of each other, without offering to engage. It was believed that Brutus himself had lost much of his ardor, by having seen again, or fancying that he saw, the spectre, during the preceding night.

6. However, he encouraged his men, and gave the signal for battle. As usual, he had the advantage where he commanded in person, bearing down the enemy at the head of his infantry, and making great slaughter. But the troops which had belonged to Cassius were seized with a panic, and communicating their terror to the rest, caused the whole army to give way.

7. Brutus, surrounded by the most valiant of his officers, fought for a long time with amazing valor. The son of Cato and the brother of Cassius fell fighting by his side. At last he was obliged to yield to superior numbers, and fled.

8. The triumvirs, confident of victory, had given orders that Brutus should by no means be suffered to escape; but Lucilius, his friend, resolved to deliver him from danger at the expense of his own life. Seeing a party of Thracian horse closely pursuing Brutus, he boldly threw himself in their way, telling them he was Brutus.

9. The Thracians immediately took him prisoner, and sent word of their capture to Antony, who immediately hastened to meet his illustrious prisoner, that he might insult his misfortunes. The ardor of the pursuit having been abated by this stratagem, Brutus escaped from his enemies, with a number of his most faithful followers.

10. The night coming on, he sat down under the shelter of a rock. After sitting a while to take breath, he repeated a line from Euripides, containing a wish to the gods that guilt should not pass in this life without punishment. To this he added another from the same poet: "O virtue! I have worshipped thee as a real good; but thou art an empty name, and the slave of fortune!"

11. He then called to mind with great tenderness those whom he had seen perish in battle. He sent out one of his friends to gain information of those who remained; but this person never returned, being killed by a party of the enemy's horse.

12. Brutus, judging rightly of his fate, now resolved to die likewise, and entreated those who stood round him to give him their last assistance; but they all refused to render him so melancholy a service. He then withdrew aside with his friend Strato, requesting him to perform the last office of friendship.

13. Upon his refusal, he ordered one of his slaves to execute what he so ardently desired. At this Strato cried out that it should never be said that Brutus, in his last extremity, stood in need of a slave for want of a friend. Turning his head aside with these words, he presented the point of his sword. Brutus threw himself upon it, and immediately expired.

place at the end of twenty days? 6. What of the second battle? 7. Of the defeat of Brutus? 8, 9. By what stratagem did Brutus escape? 10—13. Describe the death of Brutus.

CHAPTER CX.

Antony and Cleopatra.

1. The last hopes of Roman liberty expired with Brutus. The triumvirs made a cruel use of their victory, putting to death their political opponents without mercy. The men of the first rank in Rome either fell by the hands of hired assassins, or killed themselves to avoid the insults of those who were about to murder them.

2. A senator and his son were ordered to cast lots for their lives, but both refused. The father voluntarily gave himself up to the executioner, and the son stabbed himself before his face. Another begged the favor of the rites of burial after his death, to which Octavius replied that he would soon find a grave in the vultures that would devour him.

3. The head of Brutus was sent to Rome, and thrown at the foot of Cæsar's statue. His ashes were claimed by his wife, Portia, the daughter of Cato, who, following the example of her father and husband, killed herself by swallowing coals of fire.

4. The power of the triumvirs being now established on the ruins of the commonwealth, they began to think of enjoying the homage of the people whom they had subjected. Antony went to Greece to receive the flattery of the refined Athenians. He spent some time at Athens, conversing with the philosophers and attending at their disputations.

5. Thence he passed into Asia, where all the monarchs of the east who acknowledged the Roman power came to pay him obedience, while the fairest princesses strove to gain his favor by the value of their presents or the allurements of their beauty.

6. In this manner he proceeded from kingdom to kingdom, attended by a succession of sovereigns, exacting contributions, distributing favors, and giving away crowns with capricious insolence. He bestowed the kingdom of Cappadocia upon Sysenes, because he admired the beauty of his mother. He settled Herod in the kingdom of Judea.

7. Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, surpassed all others in the arts by which she sought to inveigle Antony. It happened that Serapion, her governor in Cyprus, had furnished assistance to Cassius. Antony summoned her to answer for his conduct, and she readily complied, confiding in her powers of fascination.

8. Antony was at Tarsus, a city of Cilicia, when Cleopatra resolved to attend his court in person. She sailed down the river Cydnus to meet him, with the most sumptuous pageantry. The stern of her galley was covered with gold, its sails were of purple silk, the oars silver, and the rowers kept time to the sound of flutes and cymbals.

CX.—1, 2. How did the triumvirs use their victory? 3. What of Brutus' head and ashes? Of his wife? 4. What of Antony in Greece? 5, 6. In Asia, &c.? 7. What of Cleopatra? 8, 9. Describe her state on the Cydnus.

9. Cleopatra exhibited herself reclining on a couch spangled with stars of gold, and such other ornaments as poets and painters usually ascribe to Venus. On each side were boys like Cupids, fanning her by turns, while beautiful nymphs, dressed like Nereids and Graces, were placed at proper distances around her. The incense burning on board her galley perfumed the banks of the river as she passed, while crowds of people gazed upon the spectacle with delight and admiration.

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CHAPTER CXI.

Rome under the Triumvirs.

1. ANTONY soon became captivated with her beauty, and found himself unable to defend his heart against that passion which proved the cause of his future misfortunes. When Cleopatra had thus secured her power, she set out on her return to Egypt, and Antony, abandoning every other object, hastened after her. In that country he gave himself up to all those indulgences to which his vicious heart was inclined, and for which he found ample means among the luxurious inhabitants of Alexandria.

2. While Antony was thus wasting his time in Egypt, Octavius, who undertook to lead back the veteran troops and settle them in Italy, was busily employed in providing for their subsistence. He had promised them lands at home as a recompense for their past services, but they could not receive their grants without expelling the original owners.

3. In consequence of this, multitudes of women, with children in their arms, whose tender years and innocence excited universal compassion, daily filled the streets and temples with their lamentations. Crowds of husbandmen and shepherds came to petition the conqueror to spare their property.

4. Among this number was Virgil the poet, to whom mankind owe more obligations than to a thousand conquerors. In humble terms he begged permission to retain his patrimonial farm. Virgil obtained his request, but his neighbors, the unfortunate countrymen of Mantua and Cremona, were turned out of their possessions without ceremony.

5. Italy and Rome now suffered great misery. The insolent soldiery plundered at will, while Sextus Pompey, the enemy of the triumvirs, being master of the sea, cut off all foreign intercourse, and prevented the importation of the usual supplies of corn. To these woes were soon added another civil war.

6. Lucius, the brother, and Fulvia, the wife, of Antony, raised a faction against Octavius, respecting the division of the lands. The

CXI. — 1. How was Antony enslaved by Cleopatra? 2. What of Octavius in Italy? 3. What distress was caused by him? 4. What of Virgil? 5. What was the condition of Italy? 6. What of Lucius and Fulvia?

dissension soon led to hostilities. Lucius put himself at the head of a body of forces; but Octavius, having a superior force, hemmed him in between two armies, and compelled him to retreat to Perugia, where he was starved into a surrender. On this occasion Octavius behaved with great cruelty; he caused three hundred of the senators of Perugia to be sacrificed on an altar erected to the memory of Julius Cæsar.

CHAPTER CXII.

Octavius and Antony.

1. ANTONY, hearing of his brother's overthrow, left Egypt and hastened homeward. At Athens he met his wife, whom he blamed for having stirred up the late disorders, and treated with great contempt. Leaving her upon her death-bed, he crossed over to Italy, and met the army of Octavius at Brundisium.

2. A sanguinary conflict was expected; but a negotiation was opened between the two generals, and a treaty followed. All offences and affronts were mutually forgiven, and, to cement the union, a marriage was concluded between Antony and Octavia, the sister of Octavius. A new division of the empire was then made,—the west was assigned to Octavius, the east to Antony, and Africa to Lepidus.

3. An agreement was also made with Sextus Pompey, by which he was permitted to retain all the islands in his possession, together with Peloponnesus. But the mutual jealousies of the triumvirs rendered peace of short duration. Octavius expelled Pompey from Sicily, and compelled him to seek refuge in the east, where he was put to death by one of Antony's lieutenants.

4. He also deprived Lepidus of all his power, and took possession of his provinces. The only obstacle that remained in the way of his ambition was Antony, whom he resolved to remove at all hazards. He began by rendering his character as contemptible as possible in the eyes of the Roman people, and in this design he was assisted by the follies of Antony himself.

5. The latter had undertaken an expedition against the Parthians with a prodigious army, but was forced to return, after suffering heavy losses. Having degraded himself by this disastrous attempt, he plunged into dissipation at Alexandria, and seemed to lose all regard for his character in the blandishments of Cleopatra, who studied every art to augment his passion and vary his amusements.

6. Not content with sharing with her all the delights which Egypt could afford, Antony was resolved to enlarge his sphere of luxury by granting her some of those kingdoms which belonged to the Roman dominion. He gave her all Phœnicia, Coelo-Syria and Cyprus, with

CXII. — 1. What of Antony and his wife? 2. How were Antony and Octavius reconciled? 3. What of Sextus Pompey? 4. Of Lepidus? How did Octavius proceed against Antony? 5. What of the Parthians? 6. What did Antony bestow upon Cleopatra? 7. How did the Romans regard this conduct?

a great part of Cilicia, Arabia and Judea. These were gifts which he had no right to bestow, but Antony foolishly pretended to grant them in imitation of Hercules.

7. This complication of vice and folly, Antony's debaucheries, and his slavery to the caprices of an abandoned woman, completely disgusted his friends in Egypt, and many of them, deserting him, carried such accounts of his disgraceful conduct to Rome that he lost all his partisans in the city, and a decree was passed depriving him of his office of consul.

CHAPTER CXIII.

Quarrel of Octavius and Antony.

1. OCTAVIUS reaped his advantage from all these events. Finding the Romans sufficiently irritated against Antony, he sent his sister Octavia, with the ostensible purpose of reclaiming him, but in reality to give a sufficient pretext for coming to an open rupture with his rival, as he was confident that she would be dismissed with contempt by him.

2. Antony was at Leucopolis, in Caria, absorbed in his revels with the Egyptian queen, when he heard of the approach of his wife. This was unwelcome news both to him and Cleopatra. The latter, fearing the charms of her rival, studied to convince Antony of the strength of her passion by a well-feigned melancholy.

3. Her artifices, together with the ceaseless flattery and importunity of her partisans, prevailed so far upon Antony's weakness that he sent orders for Octavia to return home, without seeing her. This insult was completed by the resolution, which he shortly after adopted, to make Cleopatra his wife.

4. In pursuance of this design, on their return to Alexandria, he assembled the people in the public theatre, where he caused to be erected an alcove of silver, under which were placed two thrones of gold, one for himself and the other for the queen. Here he took his seat, dressed as Bacchus, while Cleopatra sat beside him, clothed in the ornaments and attributes of Isis, the principal deity of the Egyptians.

5. On this occasion he proclaimed her queen of all the countries which he had formerly bestowed on her, and associated Cæsario, her son, by Julius Cæsar, as partner in the government. To the two children which she had borne to himself, he gave the title of king of kings, with very large dominions. To crown his absurdities, he then sent a minute account of his proceedings to the consuls at Rome.

6. Octavius now made a formal declaration of war against Antony, and both sides prepared for a contest which was to give a single mas-

CXIII. — 1. What was done by Octavius with his sister? 2, 3. What by Antony and Cleopatra? 4, 5. What ceremony took place at Alexandria? 6. What of the war between Octavius and Antony? 7. What were the forces of the rivals?

ter to the whole Roman world. Their armies were suitable to the greatness of the object for which they contended.

7. Antony had the most numerous forces, comprising all the military strength of the east. His army numbered a hundred thousand foot and twelve thousand horse, and his fleet amounted to five hundred ships of war. The forces of Octavius were superior in discipline, and equal in strength of cavalry, to those of Antony, but the infantry comprised but eighty thousand men, and the fleet but two hundred and fifty ships; the latter, however, were better built and manned than those of Antony.

CHAPTER CXIV.

Battle of Actium.

1. THE rival fleets and armies were at length assembled on the opposite shores of the Gulf of Ambracia, in Epirus, near which stood the city of Actium. For several months they remained in view of each other, without coming to a decisive engagement. At length Antony, instigated by Cleopatra, formed the resolution of trusting to the success of a naval battle.

2. He ranged his fleet before the mouth of the gulf, and Octavius, or more properly Agrippa, who commanded in his name, drew up his ships in opposition. The two land armies on the opposite sides of the gulf formed themselves as spectators of the conflict, and encouraged the fleets, by their shouts, to engage.

3. The battle began on both sides in an unusual manner. The prows of the ships were armed with brazen beaks, with which it was customary to drive furiously against each other. But Antony's vessels, being large, unwieldy, and ill-manned, were incapable of the necessary swiftness, while those of Octavius, from the lightness of their construction, would not stand the rude encounter.

4. The struggle, therefore, took the character of a land-fight, the ships running alongside each other. The men fought hand to hand with great ardor for a long time, and the success appeared doubtful. But on a sudden Cleopatra turned the fortune of the day. Struck with a sudden panic, she tacked about with her Egyptian squadron of sixty sail, and fled from the engagement.

5. Antony, regardless of his character as a warrior, immediately fled after her, abandoning his men, who had so bravely exposed their lives in his cause. The battle, notwithstanding, continued till evening, when Antony's forces were partly subdued by the skill of Agrippa, and partly persuaded to submit by the liberal promises of Octavius.

6. The army of Antony could not believe in the flight of their general, and held out for a week, in expectation of his returning to join

CXIV. — 1. Where did the rival fleets and armies meet? 2. How did they prepare for battle? 3. How did the battle begin? 4. What was the conduct of Cleopatra? 5. What

them ; but hearing no tidings of him, and being deserted by their allies, they made terms with the conqueror.

7. When Cleopatra fled, Antony pursued her in a single ship. Coming up with her vessel, he entered it without showing any desire to see her. She was in the stern, and he went to the prow, where he remained silent and melancholy. In this manner he passed three days, during which, either from indignation or shame, he neither saw nor spoke to Cleopatra. After this, however, the queen's female attendants reconciled them, and they lived in friendly intercourse as before.

CHAPTER CXV.

Flight of Antony.

1. ANTONY, supposing that his army continued faithful to him, sent orders to conduct it to Asia. But on his arrival in Egypt, he learned that it had joined Octavius ; this so transported him with rage that he was with difficulty restrained from killing himself. Cleopatra displayed more firmness than her lover. Having amassed a large quantity of treasure, she formed a project to convey her fleet across the Isthmus of Suez into the Red Sea, and escape to some distant region beyond the power of Rome.

2. This scheme was partly carried into effect, and a number of vessels were launched in the Red Sea ; but these were attacked and burnt by the Arabs, and the queen was compelled to abandon a design so full of difficulties. Cleopatra then commenced fortifying the avenues to her kingdom, and making preparations for war. She also negotiated for foreign assistance from the princes in alliance with Antony.

3. While she was thus employed, Antony exhibited the most lamentable weakness. At first he affected to imitate Timon the misanthrope, and shut himself up without either friend or domestic. But his natural temper did not allow him to remain long in this state, and quitting his cell, he gave himself up to feasting and every kind of extravagance.

4. In the mean time the forces of Octavius advanced on each side of Egypt. Cornelius Gallus took possession of Paretonium, which was the key of the country on the west. Antony hastened with his fleet and army to check his progress, but was compelled to retire with great loss. Pelusium, the chief fortress on the eastern side, surrendered to Octavius at the first summons.

5. Octavius now advanced upon Alexandria. Antony posted his troops upon a rising ground near the city, from whence he sent orders to his fleet to engage the enemy. He waited to be a spectator of the

of Antony? 6. What of Antony's army? 7. What was the conduct of Antony and Cleopatra in their flight?

CXV.—1. What was the behavior of Antony in Egypt? What of Cleopatra? 2. What of her project to escape? 3. What of Antony's weakness? 4—6. Describe the invasion of Egypt by Octavius.

combat, and at first he had the satisfaction to see his galleys advance in good order. But his joy was soon turned into rage when he beheld them salute those of Octavius, and, both fleets uniting, sail back into the harbor.

6. At the same moment his cavalry deserted him. He tried, however, to lead on his infantry; but these were easily vanquished, and Antony was compelled to return to the city. Overcome with rage and fury, he ran about exclaiming that "Cleopatra had betrayed him, when he had ruined his fortunes for her sake alone." In this suspicion he was not deceived, for it was by the secret orders of the queen that the fleet passed over to the enemy.

CHAPTER CXVI.

Death of Antony.

1. CLEOPATRA had for a long time dreaded the effects of Antony's jealousy, and had studied the means of securing herself against it. Near the temple of Isis she had erected a building which was apparently designed for a sepulchre. To this place she removed her most valuable treasures, covering them with torches, fagots, and other combustible materials.

2. She designed this retreat for a double purpose, to escape from the sudden resentment of Antony, and to defend herself from Octavius by threatening to burn all her treasure unless he granted her favorable terms of capitulation. She now retired to this place, shut the gates, and gave orders to have it reported that she was dead.

3. The news soon reached Antony, and aroused all his former passion for Cleopatra. In a paroxysm of grief he exclaimed, "Miserable man that I am! what is there now worth living for, since all that could soothe or soften my cares is departed? O Cleopatra! our separation does not so much afflict me as the disgrace I suffer in permitting a woman to instruct me how to die!"

4. He then called one of his freedmen, named Eros, whom he had engaged by oath to kill him whenever fortune should drive him to this last resource. He now commanded him to perform his promise. The faithful follower drew his sword as if about to strike the blow, when, turning his face, he plunged it into his own bosom, and dropped dead at his master's feet.

5. Antony paused for a moment over the body of his trusty servant, in admiration of this mark of attachment. Then, snatching up the sword, he stabbed himself, and fell backward on a couch. The wound was mortal, yet the blood stopping, he partly recovered his spirits, and entreated those who rushed to his assistance to put an end to his life; but they all fled, seized with astonishment and terror.

CXVI. — 1. Where did Cleopatra secure her treasures? 2. What was her design? 3. What of Antony and Eros? 5—8. Describe the death of Antony.

6. Antony remained in this miserable condition till he was informed that the queen was alive, and wished to have him brought to the monument in which she had taken shelter. He was accordingly carried to that place; Cleopatra, who was accompanied only by two of her women, dared not to open the gate, but from the window she threw down cords, with which Antony was drawn up.

7. Bathed in blood, he held out his hands to the queen, and faintly endeavored to raise himself from the couch on which he had been laid. Cleopatra gave way to sorrow, tore her clothes, beat her breast, and kissing the fatal wound of Antony, called him her husband, her lord and emperor. Antony entreated her to moderate the transports of her grief, and to preserve her life if it could be done with honor.

8. "As for me," said he, "lament not my misfortunes, but congratulate me upon the happiness which I have enjoyed. I have lived the greatest and most powerful of men, and though I fall, my fate is not ignominious. A Roman myself, it is by a Roman I am at last overcome!" Having said this, he expired.

CHAPTER CXVII.

Death of Cleopatra.

1. PROCULEIUS now made his appearance, by command of Octavius, who had been informed of Antony's desperate conduct. He was sent to try all means of getting Cleopatra into his power. Octavius had a double motive for his solicitude on this occasion. One was to prevent her destroying the treasures in the monument, and the other was to preserve her person as an ornament to grace his triumph.

2. The queen, however, was upon her guard, and refused to hold intercourse with Proculeius except through the gate, which was well secured. At length, by means of a ladder, an entrance was obtained through the window, and Cleopatra, finding she was a prisoner, attempted to stab herself, but the poniard was wrested from her.

3. Octavius gave orders to treat her, in every respect, with the deference and submission due to her rank. Cleopatra seems to have entertained some hope of obtaining the same influence over Octavius that she had exercised over Antony, but she found him insensible to her charms.

4. At length she received secret information that within three days she was to be sent with her children to Rome, to grace the triumph of her conqueror. She therefore determined to die; and first, throwing herself upon Antony's coffin, she bewailed her captivity, and renewed her protestations not to survive him. Having bathed and

CXVII. — 1. What of Proculeius? 2. How was Cleopatra taken? 3. What were her expectations? 4. What of her being carried to Rome? 5—7. Describe her death. 8. What followed this event?

ordered a sumptuous banquet, she attired herself in the most splendid manner.

5. After partaking of the banquet, she commanded all except her two women to leave the apartment. In the mean time she had contrived to have an asp secretly conveyed to her in a basket of figs, and then wrote to Octavius, informing him of her fatal purpose, and desiring to be laid in the same tomb with Antony.

6. Octavius, on receiving the letter, instantly despatched messengers, in hopes to check her design, but they arrived too late. Upon entering the chamber, they beheld the queen lying dead upon her couch, arrayed in her royal robes. Iras, one of her faithful attendants, was stretched lifeless at the feet of her mistress, and Charmion, the other, scarcely alive, was placing the diadem on Cleopatra's head.

7. "Alas!" cried one of the messengers, "is this well done, Charmion?" "Yes," replied she, "it is well done. Such a death is becoming a glorious queen, descended from a race of glorious ancestors!" With these words, she fell and expired, 30, B. C.

8. Egypt was reduced to the condition of a Roman province, and the enormous wealth which had been accumulated by the sovereigns of that country, was seized by Octavius and transported to Rome, where the senate saluted him by the name of Augustus. This title was at first only personal, but afterwards it was assumed by the Roman emperors on attaining the dignity of the purple. \)

CHAPTER CXVIII.

Establishment of the Power of Augustus, A. D. 30.

1. THE liberty of Rome was now gone forever, and the citizens made no further effort to recover their republican constitution. In fact, the political freedom of the people was destroyed at the death of the Gracchi; all the subsequent civil dissensions were contests for power between different sections of the oligarchy.

2. The people, weary of the oppressions of the aristocratic parties, gladly sought shelter in the sway of a single master. The ancient spirit of the Romans, and those characteristic marks that distinguished them from other nations, were now totally lost.

3. The city was inhabited by a motley population, collected from all the quarters of the world, and being thus deficient in just patriotic principles, was much better fitted for a monarchy than a republic.

4. Augustus, as he was now called, became master of the Roman world by the overthrow of Antony; the senate confirmed his elevation by conferring upon him unanimously the entire authority of the government. The civil and foreign wars now being all at an end,

CXVIII. — 1. What now was the state of Roman liberty? 2. Of the people? 3. Of the city? 4. What was the power of Augustus? 5. The state of the Roman power

the temple of Janus was once more shut, and Rome enjoyed a peace with all mankind.

5. It is remarkable that during the violent internal dissensions which had overthrown the ancient government of Rome, and amid all the bloodshed and devastation of civil war, the state was daily growing more formidable and powerful, and was able to subjugate every foreign nation that attempted to oppose it.

6. Augustus gained the sovereign power by his army, but he resolved to govern it by the senate. This body, though greatly fallen from its ancient splendor, he knew to be the best constituted, and most remarkable for wisdom and justice, of all the various orders in the Roman commonwealth.

7. To the senate, therefore, he gave the chief power in the administration of his government, while he secured the fidelity of the people and the army by donations and acts of favor. By these means he caused the odium of severity to fall upon the senate, while the popularity of pardon was solely his own.

8. Thus restoring a certain degree of splendor to the senate, and discountenancing corruption, he pretended to reserve to himself a very moderate share of authority, to which none could object, namely, the power to compel all ranks of the state to do their duty.

9. This was, in fact, retaining the absolute control of the commonwealth in his own hands, but the ignorant people looked upon his moderation with astonishment. They believed themselves restored to their former freedom, and the senate imagined their ancient power reestablished in everything but the tendency to injustice.

10. It was even said that the Romans, by such a government, lost nothing of the happiness which liberty could secure to them and were exempt from all the evils which it could occasion.

CHAPTER CXIX.

Roman Literature during the Second Period.

1. We have seen that during the era of the kings nothing deserving the name of literature existed among the Romans. The same may be said of the early ages of the republic. The people were at this time too much engrossed by war, and their prevailing taste inclined too strongly towards conquest and the extension of their power, to allow any considerable leisure or patronage to the arts of peace.

2. Subsequently, however, when the Romans had attained to security and opulence, and had been led by their very conquests to a knowledge of the arts and sciences existing in the conquered countries, they began to patronize and cultivate them.

during the civil wars? 6. Of the army and the senate? 7. How did Augustus treat these two bodies? 8. What of his own power? 9. What did the people and senate think of themselves? 10. What was said of the government of Rome?

CXIX. — 1. What of early Roman literature? 2. What was the effect of the Roman

3. The first intercourse of the Romans with the Greeks acquainted them with the productions of Grecian taste and art, and excited a desire of imitating them. This was properly the origin of Roman literature. There was something, however, more national in the first rude attempt of the Romans at dramatic composition.

4. About the end of the fourth century from the foundation of the city, a plague broke out at Rome. The senate, having exhausted without effect their own superstitious ceremonies, decreed that the *histriones*, or play-actors, should be summoned from Etruria, to appease the wrath of the gods by their scenic representations.

5. Whether the Roman legislators actually trusted to this proceeding as a divine remedy, or only resorted to it with the sagacious design of amusing the populace in their melancholy condition by a novel entertainment, cannot now be known; but the Etruscan actors were called to play at Rome. Their performances consisted chiefly of rude dances and gesticulations, accompanied by the flute. Some kind of a story was represented by pantomimes, but there appears to have been no dialogue.

6. This whimsical sort of religious expiation seems to have had a part, at least, of its designed effect. The multitude were amused; the fancy of the Roman youths was strongly roused, and they imitated the Etruscan actors; improving on the entertainment by rallying each other in jocose and extempore dialogue.

7. About the same time, the Fescennine verses, originally employed in Etruria at the harvest-home of the peasantry, became applied by the Romans to marriage ceremonies and public diversions. There were also songs of triumph in a rude measure, which were sung by the soldiers at the ovations of their leaders; some of these laudatory strains were seasoned with coarse jokes and camp jests.

8. Afterwards these effusions expanded into ballads, in which the exploits of heroes and the adventures of the Roman armies were related. However numerous these may have been, none of them were preserved after the Romans obtained a knowledge of Greek literature.

9. A sudden improvement in the Latin language, and an equally sudden advancement in taste and literature, was caused by the conquest of Magna Grecia, and the intercourse opened to the Romans with the Greek colonies of Sicily. By these events they could not fail to catch a portion of Grecian taste and spirit, or at least to admire the beautiful creations of Grecian fancy. Many of the conquerors remained in the Greek cities, while, on the other hand, the inhabitants of these cities, who were most distinguished for literary attainments, fixed their residence in Rome.

conquests? 3. Of their intercourse with the Greeks? 4. Of the plague at Rome? 5. The *histriones* and their performances? 6. What influence did they have? 7. What of the Fescennine verses, &c.? 8. Of ballads? 9. Of the conquest of Magna Grecia?

CHAPTER CXX.

Livius Andronicus — Nævius — Ennius — Plautus.

1. It is in the latter part of the fifth century from the foundation of Rome, that we find among its inhabitants the primitive vestiges of literature. This appears earliest in the shape of dramatic poetry. Livius Andronicus, B. C. 219, a native of Magna Grecia, was the first who attempted to establish at Rome a regular theatre.

2. His earliest play was represented about a year after the close of the First Punic war. But except the titles of his pieces, little remains of them at the present day. They continued, however, popular for a long time in Rome, and were read by the boys at school even during the reign of Augustus. The plays of Livius appear to have been tragedies.

3. His successor, Nævius, distinguished himself also as a tragic and comic writer. He lampooned the elder Scipio, and other eminent citizens, for which he was thrown into prison, and finally expelled from the city.

4. The next writer of distinction is Ennius, who was born about B. C. 240, and has generally received the glorious appellation of the Father of Roman Song. He was a native of Calabria, and served in the armies of the republic. To judge by the fragments of his works which remain, Ennius greatly surpassed his predecessors, not only in poetical genius, but in the art of versification.

5. He professed to imitate Homer, and tried to persuade the Romans that the soul and genius of that great poet had revived in him through the medium of a peacock, according to the process of Pythagorean transmigration.

6. Ennius made use of the old national ballads in the composition of an epic poem called the Annals, which embodied the chief events of Roman story previous to his time. His versification was rugged, but he occasionally produced lines of considerable harmony and beauty, and his conceptions were frequently set forth with energy and spirit. He also attempted dramatic, satiric, and didactic poetry : but only fragments of his works remain.

7. Plautus, the father of Roman comedy, born B. C. 227, was a writer of eminent talents: He had a rich vein of wit, a happy invention, and great force of humorous expression. The Greek comic writers were his chief models, and he was particularly successful in low comedy.

8. He is said to have realized a considerable fortune by the popularity of his plays, and to have lost it in speculation. Thus he was reduced to the necessity of working as a common laborer, when a famine at Rome diminished the general resort to the theatre.

9. The homely wit and drollery of Plautus were so captivating to

CXX. — 1. What of Livius Andronicus? 2. Of his plays? 3. Of Nævius? 4. Of Ennius? 5. Whom did he imitate? 6. His Annals, &c.? 7. Of Plautus? 8. His life? 9. His popularity?

the people, that his plays were still favorite pieces on the Roman stage even after the more elegant performances of Terence began to be represented. Molière, Shakspeare and Dryden have copied from Plautus.

CHAPTER CXXI.

Terence—Lucretius—Catullus.

1. TERENCE, the delight and ornament of the Roman stage, was a slave, and born at Carthage, B. C. 192. After he obtained his freedom, he became the friend of Cœlius and the younger Scipio. He wrote six comedies at Rome, after which he went to Greece, and never returned.

2. According to one account, he perished at sea, on his voyage back to Italy, with one hundred and eight comedies which he had translated from Menander. Others state that having sent these before him by sea to Rome, they were lost by shipwreck, and he died of grief in Arcadia.

3. Six comedies of Terence are remaining; they are of high excellence in respect to the characters, the truth and refinement of the dialogue, and the management of the plot. He had less invention and less comic power than Plautus, but he had more taste, a better style, and a keener knowledge of human nature. In respect to style, Terence is regarded as a model of correct composition.

4. Lucretius was the most remarkable of the Roman poets, as he united the precision of the philosopher with the fire and fancy of the bard; and while he seems to have had no perfect model among the Greeks, he has left a production unrivalled by anything of the kind in later ages.

5. Lucretius was born about B. C. 95. He lived in a period full of important events, but seems to have kept himself retired from public affairs. He was sent, according to the custom of that time, with other young Romans of rank, to study at Athens, where he attended on the instructions of Zeno and Phædrus. Cicero was among his fellow-students.

6. Lucretius is said to have committed suicide, in the forty-fourth year of his age, in a fit of insanity. His great work is a philosophical and didactic poem, "On the Nature of Things," and contains a full exposition of the theological, physical, and moral system of Epicurus. It is a composition unrivalled in energy and richness of language, and genuine sublimity.

7. In the history of Roman taste and criticism, nothing appears more extraordinary than the slight mention that is made of Lucretius by succeeding Latin authors. Perhaps the spirit of free-thinking which pervaded his writings rendered it unsuitable or unsafe to extol even his poetical talents.

CXXI.—1. What of Terence? 2. His life? 3. His comedies? 4. Of Lucretius? 5. His life? 6. His poem? 7. His philosophy? 8. Of Catullus?

8. Catullus was born B. C. 86. Little is known of his life, except his intimacy with Cicero. He wrote odes, songs, satires, elegies and epigrams. In literary merit he is ranked above all the other Latin poets, except Virgil and Horace. His pieces have much refinement of feeling, and grace of expression. The taste of the age, however, was growing corrupt, and Catullus was not free from its influence.

CHAPTER CXXII.

Cato the Elder — Sallust.



Cato.

1. Of the Latin prose-writers of the republican age, one of the earliest whose works are extant is Cato the Elder, who was born B. C. 235. Like almost all his fellow-citizens, he was brought up to the profession of arms. In the short intervals of peace, he resided during his youth at a small country-house in the Sabine territory.

2. He was remarkable for his industrious habits, his frugality, and his fondness for agriculture. In the morning he went to the villages round about, to plead and defend the causes of those who applied to him for assistance. He then returned to his fields, where, with a

plain cloak over his shoulders in winter, and almost naked in summer, he labored with his servants till they had concluded their task.

3. After this he sat down with them at table, eating the same bread and drinking the same wine. He thus became the best farmer of his age. He was, besides, employed in all the more important civil and military offices of the state. During the greater part of his life, he showed the strongest dislike to the learning and refinement of the Greeks; yet in his old age he began to study the Greek language.

4. Cato wrote history, orations, works on morals, education, medicine, war, and other topics. All these are lost, except a treatise on farming, and some epistles. The former is a composition destitute of method, yet abounding in curious matter. It gives rules how to buy land, how to cultivate it, how to manage a house, how to make cakes and puddings, fatten hens and geese, cure pains and disorders, &c., &c.

5. History among the Romans was not written merely to gratify curiosity, but also to stimulate by the force of example, and urge on the citizens of the republic to emulation in warlike prowess. Accordingly they had their annalists from the earliest period of the consular government. The works of all the early historians, however, have perished.

6. The most ancient whose writings are extant is Sallust. He was born B. C. 85, and engaged in politics at an early period of life. In the civil wars he took the side of Cæsar against Pompey, and was made governor of Numidia, where he enriched himself by plundering the province.

7. When he returned to Rome he built a magnificent palace in the suburbs, which was surrounded by delightful pleasure-grounds, long afterwards celebrated as the Gardens of Sallust. This palace became the residence of several of the emperors, and was destroyed by fire when the Goths under Alaric took the city.

8. Sallust wrote a history of Rome, from the death of Sulla to the conspiracy of Catiline, which is lost, with the exception of a few fragments. Two other works of his, however, are still extant, the History of Catiline's Conspiracy and that of the Jugurthine War. Sallust adopted Thucydides as his model. A noble brevity and a vivid manner of representing events are his chief characteristics.

9. The reflections which accompany his narrative are so just and pointed that he has been considered by some as the father of philosophic history. The characters drawn by him have in all ages been regarded as master-pieces; he has seized the delicate shades as well as the prominent features, and thrown over them the most lively and appropriate coloring.

CXXII. — 1. Of Cato the Elder? 2, 3. His life? 4. His works 5. Of Roman history? 6. Sallust? 7. His life? 8, 9. His history?

CHAPTER CXXIII.

Cicero—Cæsar.*Cicero.*

1. But the most distinguished writer of the republican period was Cicero, who excelled equally as a statesman, as an orator, and as an elegant philosophical writer. He was born at Arpinum, in the modern kingdom of Naples, B. C. 106, and received instructions in oratory from Apollonius Molo, of Rhodes. He also visited Athens for study. After his return to Rome he was appointed quæstor, and subsequently consul.

2. In the latter office, as we have already seen, he rendered the state great service by defeating the conspiracy of Catiline. Yet he was shortly after banished from Rome, through the influence of the profligate tribune Clodius. He voluntarily withdrew from Italy to Greece, and was soon recalled in the most honorable manner.

3. In the civil war he took the side of Pompey against Cæsar, but after the battle of Pharsalia he was reconciled to the conqueror. Mark Antony was his bitter enemy, and during the last triumvirate

Cicero was proscribed through his influence, and murdered by one of Antony's emissaries, B. C. 43.

4. Cicero was of an amiable disposition, and upright principles; his failings were vanity and infirmity of purpose; but he must be pronounced, on the whole, one of the brightest characters of antiquity. Cicero was a voluminous writer; much of what he left behind him has been lost, yet enough remains to give us a high opinion of his powers as a writer and a speaker.

5. His works consist of orations, letters, rhetorical treatises, and philosophical dissertations. Cicero was the greatest of Roman orators; but he also possessed, in a degree superior to all other orators, of whatever age or nation, a general and discursive acquaintance with philosophy and literature, together with an admirable facility in communicating the results of his labors in a manner the most copious, perspicuous and attractive.

6. Cicero was an admirer of Plato, though in questions of morality he adopted the principles of the Stoics. In his philosophical writings he exhibits the opinions of all the various sects. It was his great aim to explain to his fellow-citizens, in their own language, whatever the sages of Greece had taught on the most important subjects, in order to enlarge their minds and reform their morals. His writings are a most valuable collection, and have proved a mine of information to succeeding ages.

7. Julius Cæsar must be mentioned among the writers of the republican age. His life and character are prominent in the history of Rome, as we have already seen. He wrote his Commentaries on the Gallic and Civil Wars. These writings comprehend but a small extent of time, but they embrace events of the highest importance, and detail the greatest military operations, perhaps, to be found in ancient story.

8. The military genius of Rome breathes through the pages of Cæsar, which comprehend all the varieties which warfare offers to our interest and admiration, — battles, encampments, retreats, marches through woods and over mountains, passages of rivers, sieges, defences, and those still more interesting accounts of the spirit and discipline of the enemy's troops and the talents of their generals.

9. The style of Cæsar is remarkable for clearness, ease, and a simplicity more truly noble than the pomp of words. When he speaks of himself, it is without affectation or arrogance. With the exception of the false colors in which he disguises his ambitious projects against the liberties of his country, everything seems to be told with fidelity and candor. Cæsar was also the author of other works, now lost.

CXXIII. — 1. Of Cicero? 2, 3. His life? 4. His character? 5. His works? 6. His philosophy? 7. Cæsar? 8. His works? 9. His style?

as known to the Ancients



THIRD PERIOD.—THE EMPIRE

CHAPTER CXXIV.

Description of the Roman Empire.

1. At this point of our history, we must pause to take a survey of the Roman empire, which, under Augustus, had reached the highest pitch of greatness. The very name of Rome calls up in our mind every image of grandeur, power, and magnificence; and every association connected with it serves to concentrate around the Eternal City a halo of splendor and glory.

2. The republic produced men who, in moral dignity and force of character, were perhaps never surpassed on earth. They had transmitted their names, if not their virtues, to their descendants. Even to the very close of the empire, the men who, sunk in slavery and baseness, still called themselves Roman citizens, seemed to live in the midst of their shades, and to be encompassed by the atmosphere of their glory. The laws had changed their spirit, but the changes had been slow and scarcely perceptible to the people.

3. The manners were no longer the same, but the memory of the ancient virtue of Rome still survived. The literature had been preserved with the language, and it established a community of opinions, of feelings, and of prejudices, between the Romans of the age of Virgil and those of the time of Claudian. The magistrates and officers of the state had generally preserved their ancient names and insignia, although their power had fled.

4. From the time of Augustus to that of Constantine, the empire of Rome was bounded by nearly the same frontiers. This permanence of the national limits may in part be ascribed to the sagacity with which the Roman leaders, at the period of her highest power, voluntarily stopped short in the career of conquest where they found the best military frontiers.

5. Great rivers, which afford little obstacle to the armies of civilized nations, are generally a formidable barrier to the incursions of barbarians; and, in fact, great rivers, the ocean, mountain ridges and deserts, formed natural frontiers to this immense empire.

6. According to a vague calculation, it has been found that the Roman territory, in its largest extent, measured eighteen hundred miles from north to south, and upwards of three thousand from east to west. On the north the empire was bounded by the territories of the Caledonians and Picts, the Rhine, the Danube, and the Euxine. The Caledonian wall, which divided Scotland, left the Romans in possession of the lowlands of that country, and of the whole of England.

7. The Rhine and the Danube, which rise nearly at the same point, and flow, one to the east and the other to the west, separated barbaric from civilized Europe. The Rhine formed the frontier of Gaul, which then comprised France, Switzerland, and Belgium.

CXXIV. — 1. What of the Roman empire? 2. What of the men of the republic? 3. Of manners and literature? 4, 5. What were the boundaries of the empire? 6. What

8. The Danube flowed through countries, some of which are now regarded as Germanic and others as Slavonic. On its southern bank the Romans possessed Rætia, Noricum, Pannonia, and Mæsia, which coincide nearly with Suabia, Bavaria, part of Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia.

9. The narrow space between the sources of the Danube and the Rhine was defended by a line of fortifications. The Black or Euxine Sea formed the northern boundary of Asia Minor. Several Greek colonies in the north and east of this region existed in a precarious sort of dependence upon Rome.

10. On the east, the empire was bounded by the mountains of Armenia, a part of the Euphrates, and the Arabian desert. One of the loftiest mountain ranges of the globe, the Caucasus, extending from the Euxine to the Caspian, touching Thibet at one extremity, and the central ridges of Asia Minor at the other, divided the Scythians of Upper Asia from the Persians and Romans.

11. The wildest part of these mountains belonged to the Iberians, who maintained their independence. The more cultivated regions were inhabited by the Armenians, who submitted alternately to the yoke of the Romans, the Parthians, and the Persians.

CHAPTER CXXV.

Description of the Empire, continued.

1. **ALONG** the whole of the eastern boundary, down to the sandy deserts between the Euphrates and Syria, the frontiers of the empire had not been traced by the hand of nature. We shall accordingly see the two great monarchies of the Romans and Parthians, or their successors, alternately wresting from each other the provinces of Armenia or Mesopotamia.

2. The deserts of Arabia formed the frontier of Syria for an extent of six hundred miles. On the south, the African deserts of Libya and Sahara, and on the west, the Atlantic Ocean, were at once the limits of the empire and of what was then regarded as the habitable globe. The Roman empire thus included the fairest portions of the known world, surrounding the Mediterranean Sea.

3. The most westerly province was Spain, whose boundary, being fixed by nature, was unvaried during the Roman dominion. This was the first country out of Italy that submitted to the Roman arms, but its final conquest baffled the efforts of the ablest commanders for almost half a century.

4. Spain was famous for its silver, which was so abundant that the most common utensils were made of it. While the Romans held the country, they employed forty thousand men in the mines

was the extent of the empire? 7, 8. What of the Rhine and Danube? 9. Of the Euxine? 10. Of the eastern boundaries? 11. Of the Iberians and Armenians?

CXXV.—1. What of Rome and Parthia? 2. Of the Arabian and African deserts?

Many fine cities were erected here by them. At Segovia a magnificent aqueduct still remains, and is one of the best preserved of their structures now extant.

5. Gaul was divided into three great sections. Belgia, Aquitania, and Gallia Propria, which differed considerably in language, manners, and customs. The superior valor of the Gallic tribes rendered them formidable to all the southern nations. It was commonly said that the Romans fought with others for conquest, but with the Gauls for actual existence.

6. But from the time of the subjugation of their country by Julius Cæsar, the courage of the Gauls seemed to disappear with their liberty. They never revolted except when the extortions of their rulers became insupportable, and their efforts were neither vigorous nor well-directed.

7. In no province did Roman civilization produce greater effects than in Gaul. Many public works, of stupendous size and great utility, were constructed here. Roads were opened and paved with stone, durable bridges were erected, and aqueducts formed to supply the cities with water. Remains of these mighty works are still to be found, and they cannot be viewed without wonder and admiration.

8. Though Britain was not reduced to the form of a Roman province till long after the time of Julius Cæsar, yet as that conqueror brought it nominally under subjection, it may enter into a general description of the Roman empire. The southern part of the island was originally colonized from Gaul. The tribes that inhabited the east and north are thought to have been of German descent.

9. That part of Britain which now constitutes England was anciently divided among seventeen tribes. When this island was first visited by the Romans, the inhabitants had made considerable advances in civilization. The country was well peopled, and stocked with cattle. The Britons painted and tattooed their skins in the manner of the South Sea islanders of the present day.

10. In war they made use of chariots with sharp blades fixed to the axle-trees, which they drove at full speed against the hostile ranks. Little is known respecting their religion, except that they were under the influence of priests, called Druids, and that they offered human sacrifices to the gods. This religion also prevailed among the uncivilized tribes of Gaul.

11. Germany was a name loosely given by the Romans to all the countries north of the Rhine and Danube. The Germans prided themselves on their military virtues, and successfully resisted the attacks of the Romans. Their religion seems to have resembled that of the Gauls, except that it was rather more sanguinary, and greater regard was paid to oracles and old soothsayers.

12. The provinces of Asia Minor were in general the most tranquil portions of the empire; and the most prosperous and happy period in the history of this country was that during which it remained subject to Rome. Several of the states in this quarter were

3. Of Spain? 4. Of its mines? 5. Of Gaul? 6. Its subjugation? 7. Of civilization in Gaul? 8. Of Britain? 9, 10. Its inhabitants? 11. Of Germany? 12. Of Asia Minor? 13. Of trade and commerce under the Romans?

at first permitted to retain a qualified independence, but before the close of the first century of the Christian era, they were all absorbed into the empire.

13. The Romans succeeded in Asia to the great commercial marts of the Phœnicians, Greeks, and Egyptians, and acquired in Africa the ancient trading stations of the Carthaginians. Yet they made little or no effort to encourage traffic, and opened no new routes for trade.

CHAPTER CXXVI.

Inhabitants of the Empire.

1. THROUGHOUT this huge assemblage of races and communities, national recollections and national feelings were obliterated and sunk in imperial Rome. They were feebly replaced by two distinctions between the inhabitants of the empire, that of language and that of rank.

2. The Latin language was spoken in Italy, Gaul, Africa, part of Illyria, and on the banks of the Danube. Greek was the language of almost all the east. The great mass, however, of the rural population had preserved their provincial languages. Celtic was spoken in Britain and the north of Gaul, Illyrian on the eastern coast of the Adriatic. Syrian, Coptic, Armenian, &c., in other parts of the empire.

3. Where the people were the most enslaved they made the greatest efforts to learn the language of their masters. The latter, on the other hand, were compelled to make the advances where the conquered people were the most numerous and strong. Throughout the empire, however, there was a continual shifting of the population, occasioned by the immense traffic in slaves, the military service, and the exercise of civil functions. Hence, every province presented in its lower classes a strange mixture of dialects.

4. Six classes of inhabitants distinguished the period of the empire. 1. The senatorial families, proprietors of immense territories and enormous wealth. 2. The inhabitants of large towns, a mixture of artisans and freed slaves, who lived on the luxury of the rich, and shared in their corruption. 3. The inhabitants of small towns, poor, despised and oppressed. 4. Husbandmen. 5. Slaves. 6. Banditti, who, to escape from oppression, took to the woods and mountains, and lived by robbery.

5. The peasantry were rigorously deprived of arms, and were incapacitated from contributing to the defence of the country. The free cultivators possessed little of personal liberty, except the name. They labored upon the soil for certain fixed wages, generally paid in produce; but they were separated from their masters, the landholders,

CXXVI. — 1. What of national character among the subjects of the Roman empire? 2. Of languages? 3. Of the mixtures of population? 4. Into how many classes were the people divided? 5. What was the state of the peasantry? 6. Of the slaves?

by an impassable distance. They were immediately dependent on some favorite slave or freedman, and were subjected to every degree of oppression.



Roman Country People.

6. The slaves lived in huts, under the eyes of their overseers, like the negroes on an American plantation. These wretched beings were worked almost constantly with chains on their feet, and were shut up nightly in subterraneous holes. The frightful sufferings of so large a part of the population, and their bitter hatred against their oppressors, produced the natural consequences in the course of time, — servile insurrections, plots, assassinations, and poisonings.

CHAPTER CXXVII.

The City of Rome under Augustus.

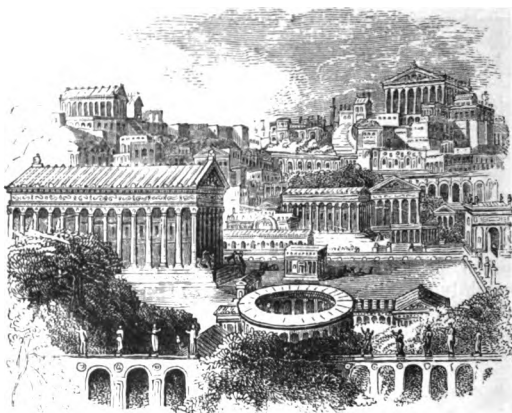
1. THE city of Rome, during the prosperous days of the empire, was unrivalled for magnificence, wealth, and luxury. It was enriched by its victorious generals with the spoils of a hundred nations, and the treasures of the most potent monarchs were poured into its coffers.

2. It contained four hundred and twenty temples, beside theatres, amphitheatres, circuses, and public baths of vast extent, the ruins of which at the present day strike every beholder with amazement. Some of the baths were constructed of marble, and were sufficiently large to accommodate three thousand bathers at once.

CXXVII. — 1. What was the state of the city of Rome in the prosperous days of the

3. Aqueducts of enormous size conveyed a copious supply of water from the neighboring country into Rome, and kept in play a prodigious number of fountains, many of which were remarkable for their architectural beauty. The palaces, triumphal arches, columns, porticos, and obelisks, were almost without number, and were for the most part elegant specimens of art.

4. The architectural splendor of the city properly dates from the reign of Augustus, who boasted that he "found it of brick, and left it marble." Among the chief ornamental structures was the Capitol. This was built on the Capitoline Hill, the highest part of the city and was ascended from the forum by a flight of one hundred steps. The gates were of brass, overlaid with gold, and the whole building was so plentifully adorned in this manner that it acquired the name of the "Golden Capitol."



Roman Forum and Capitol.

5. The Senate House was the grand legislative hall of the nation. It was decorated with the statues of eminent warriors and statesmen. The Pantheon, or temple of all the gods, built in the reign of Augustus, is now a Christian church, and is the best preserved ancient building in Rome. It is universally admired for its fine dome and portico. The Circus Maximus, and the Coliseum, or Flavian Amphitheatre, were enormous structures, destined to the combats of gladiators, and other shows.

6. In the forum was the celebrated temple of Janus, built entirely of bronze. On the Capitoline Hill stood the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus, which was regarded as the national sanctuary of the Romans. It was constantly enriched by the offerings of successful generals and

empire? 2. Of its public buildings? 3. Aqueducts? 4. The Capitol? 5. The Senate House, Pantheon, Circus Maximus, and Coliseum? 6. Temples?

foreign princes, who were eager to conciliate the Romans. Every year a nail was driven into this temple by the chief magistrate. This curious custom is supposed to have been the first rude method of marking the lapse of time.

CHAPTER CXXVIII.

Rome under Augustus.

1. In the valley between the Palatine and Capitoline Hills was the forum, or place of public assembly, and great market. It was surrounded with halls for the administration of justice, called *basilicæ*, temples, and public offices. It was also adorned with statues of eminent Romans, and various trophies from conquered nations.

2. Among these memorials of conquest were several *rostra*, or prows of ships, taken from the Carthaginians at Antium. These were used to ornament the pulpits from which the magistrates and public officers harangued the general assemblies of the people. Thus originated the phrase, "to mount the rostrum."

3. The porticos or piazzas were very numerous at Rome; these were covered colonnades, adorned with statues, and were designed as places for the citizens to meet for business or walk for pleasure. They were sometimes separate structures, and sometimes connected with other large buildings. The most splendid was that of the temple of Apollo, on the Palatine Hill. The largest bore the name of *Milliaria*, from its thousand columns.

4. The city was adorned with triumphal arches, having statues and various sculptured ornaments. Some of these were very magnificent. They were built of the finest marble, of a square figure, with a large arched passage in the middle, and a small one at the sides.

5. There were large open spaces in the city, designed for assemblies of the people, and for martial exercises. The Campus Martius was the most famous. It was near the Tiber, and was originally the property of Tarquin the Proud, but was confiscated after his expulsion. In the most flourishing age of the city, it was surrounded by magnificent structures, with porticos, and was also adorned with statues and arches.

6. Thirty-one great roads centred in Rome. These, issuing from the forum, traversed Italy, pervaded the provinces, and terminated on the frontiers of the empire. Augustus erected a gilt pillar in the middle of the forum, called the *Milliarium aureum*, from which the distances on the various roads were reckoned. This curious monument was discovered so late as 1823. There were thirty gates to the city, and eight bridges crossed the Tiber.

CXXVIII. — 1. Of the forum? 2. Rostra? 3. Porticos, &c. 4. Triumphal arches? 5. Squares? 6. Roads?

CHAPTER CXXIX

Reign of Augustus.*Augustus.*

1. **ALTHOUGH** the Roman empire was now a monarchy, yet the old forms of the republic were faithfully preserved. The consuls were elected every year, in the usual manner, and the senate discussed matters of state as if the legislative authority continued in their body.

2. The name of king was still odious to Roman ears, and their monarch contented himself with the title of *Imperator*, which had been borne by the commanders of armies in the best days of the republic. To such an extent are mankind influenced by names!

3. With the assumption of supreme power, Augustus took upon himself an entirely new character. He became distinguished for his clemency and moderation, and sought, by a beneficent and paternal administration, to obliterate the remembrance of his former cruelties. Thus, by a cool and calculating policy, he was transformed into a mild and merciful ruler, truly anxious to insure the happiness of the people intrusted to his charge.

4. Some writers state that Augustus at first wished to resign his power, after the example of Sulla, but was dissuaded by his friends, Agrippa and Mecænas, who represented to him, with great truth, that the Roman state could no longer be governed by its old constitution, and that he would retire only to make room for another master.

5. Augustus, however, went through the form of an abdication in the senate, but on the urgent request of that body, he resumed his authority. Still further to exhibit his moderation, he consented only to hold the sovereign power for ten years; an example which was followed by succeeding emperors. This gave rise to the *Sacra decennalia*, or the festival celebrated at each renewal of the imperial authority.

6. Amid all the adulations of the senate and people, Augustus did not forget that he owed his elevation to the army; he therefore exerted himself diligently to attach the soldiers to his interest. He dispersed his veterans over Italy in thirty-two colonies, dispossessing, in many places, the ancient inhabitants, to make room for these settlers.

7. He maintained seventeen legions in Europe, namely, eight on the Rhine, four on the Danube, three in Spain, and two in Dalmatia. Eight more were kept in Asia and Africa; so that the standing army of the empire exceeded one hundred and seventy thousand men.

8. A body of these, bearing the title of the Prætorian Guard, and comprising nine thousand men, were stationed in Rome, to protect the emperor's person. A thousand more performed the duties of a city guard in the capital.

6. Two powerful fleets were established in the Italian seas, one at Ravenna, to guard the Adriatic, and the other at Misenum, near Naples, to protect the western part of the Mediterranean.

10. It is calculated that the revenues of the empire under Augustus amounted to two hundred million dollars; but this enormous sum was not more than sufficient to defray the expenses of the civil, military, and naval establishments, and of the public works undertaken to adorn the metropolis.

CHAPTER CXXX.

Reign of Augustus.

1. AFTER the death of Lepidus, Augustus assumed the dignity of Chief Pontiff; so that, like the ancient kings, he was at the head of the state religion, which gave him still more power than he previously possessed as a sovereign.

2. It has already been stated, that, the title of emperor, as conferred on Julius Cæsar, was a military one, and only had reference to

did he fear? 3. What of the character of Augustus? 4, 5. Of his resignation? 6. How did he dispose of the army? 8. The Prætorian Guard? 9. The fleets? 10. What was the revenue of the empire?

his command over the armies ; but with regard to his successors, it implied also the sovereignty of the state ; and in this sense it has come down to our times.

3. As long, however, as the empire lasted, it was usual to style the sovereign of Rome, Emperor, when speaking of him in his military capacity, and to call him Cæsar, when referring to his civil authority. Formerly, any general, invested with the title of Imperator, was distinguished by a purple robe ; but from this time the purple was one of the ensigns of imperial dignity.

4. Augustus exercised his supreme authority by ejecting from the senate a number of ignorant and unfit persons, so that he reduced the number to six hundred. He recalled many who had been banished for political offences, and restored their estates.

5. He also established a vigilant police, by which Italy was freed from the molestation of the banditti that, during the civil wars, had infested not only the country and provincial towns, but even Rome itself ; and he repaired the great roads of Italy, which had been suffered to get into a bad condition.

6. The public roads were among the most valuable, as well as the most durable, monuments of the power and greatness of the Roman nation. Some of these roads extended from the centre of Rome, to the most remote provinces of the empire. The portions of road within the city were paved with stones, such as is chiefly used for the foot-pavement in London. The roads through the open country were at first overlaid with gravel, but afterwards paved on a bed of composition, as may be yet observed in the remnants of Roman roads in Britain.

7. At an early period the censors had the care of the public roads ; but Augustus Cæsar appointed surveyors of the roads, (*Curatores Viarum*;) and these officers had the power of enforcing the performance of statute labor, to keep them in repair, exemption from which might be purchased with money. The construction of new roads (when not owing to the munificence of public-spirited persons) was paid for out of the revenues of the government. They were made by the military, who used to labor four hours daily, at some useful public work, in the open air, to often keep up their health and strength, and fit them for military duties.

8. But the greatest works performed in the time of Augustus were those by which Rome was converted from a very plain city into the most magnificent capital in the world. It was a favorite saying with the emperor, that he had found it a city of brick, but would leave it a city of marble ; and this he truly did ; for the splendid edifices that he raised were constructed chiefly of the latter material.

9. The people were not taxed or oppressed in any way for these improvements, which were made at the expense of Augustus himself, and the wealthy nobles, who were stimulated by his example. Among these was his son-in-law, Agrippa, one of the greatest men of the age, who held a distinguished rank in the empire, being next

CXXX. -- 1. What religious office did Augustus assume ? 2, 3. What of the title of emperor ? 4. How did Augustus reform the senate ? 5. The police ? 6, 7. The public roads ? 8. The improvement of the city ? 9. The taxation ? Agrippa ?

to the emperor in authority and dignity. He was a great soldier and engineer, an eminent statesman, and a liberal patron of the arts. He spent vast sums in public works, the greatest of which was the Pantheon

CHAPTER CXXXI.

Rome under Augustus.

1. THE works of Augustus were directed towards the general embellishment of the city, rather than the erection of any particular edifice; and the Campus Martius, till then an open space, began to be covered with elegant buildings; but there was no royal palace, for the emperor resided in a private house, and his style of living was not different from that of the rich citizens.

2. Roman civilization was now rapidly spread through the empire. Learning was cultivated; the country improved; new towns were built; villas and ornamental gardens constructed; roads made; and the people taught many useful arts, of which they were till then ignorant. Wherever the Roman dominion was firmly established, many opulent families went to reside; and as they were the superior people, the natives of the higher classes adopted their dress, language, and manners.

3. They greatly improved the agriculture and horticulture of Europe, by introducing into the provinces the flowers and fruits of the east, and the cultivation of flax from Egypt; it was in the time of Augustus, when Egypt became a Roman province, that linen began to be used among the Romans, a manufacture for which the Egyptians were particularly famous.

4. Glass was also manufactured at Alexandria, and sent to Rome, which was the great market at this period for the richest productions of every country. The Roman manufactures were carried on chiefly by slaves; and one of them was paper, made from a species of reed obtained from Egypt, called papyrus.

5. The papyrus plant grows in marshy places, to the height of about ten feet, and paper was made from the thin coats or inner rind, by joining them together. A layer thus prepared was laid on a board, and another layer laid over it crosswise, which, being pressed together, and dried in the sun, formed a sheet of paper.

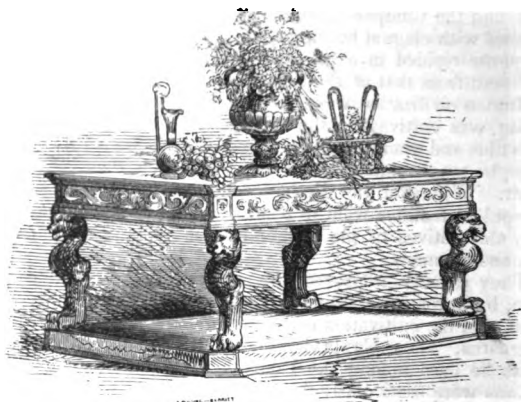
6. To make a book, the sheets were pasted together in a length, and rolled on a stick, and the writing was in columns, with a blank space between them. These rolls, called volumes, were kept in cases in the libraries. There were many booksellers at Rome, and most of them employed people to make copies of the works they had on sale, of which a list was usually hung up on the shop door.

7. The inhabitants of Rome were, generally speaking, plentifully supplied with the luxuries, as well as the necessities of life, from

CXXXI. — 1. What of the residence of Augustus? 2. What of the extension of civilization? 3, 4. Of agriculture and manufactures? 5. Of the papyrus? 6. Of books?

different parts of the empire. Ice and excellent cheese were sent from the Alpine districts ; pork, geese, and salt, in large quantities, from Gaul ; spices, perfumes, and precious stones, from the east, as well as many beautiful manufactured articles ; and they also received abundance of gold, and silver, and iron, as tribute from various nations.

8. Many manufactures were carried on in various parts of Italy : as, for instance, tapestry was made at Padua, and steel goods of all kinds at Como. The principal trade was in corn, and other provisions for the use of the capital ; and this important branch of commerce was under the immediate direction of the emperor, one of whose titles was commissary-general of corn.



Roman Table.

9. There was a fine kind of wood sent to Rome from the kingdom of Mauritania, and used for making large tables, which were often inlaid with ivory, and sold for such enormous prices, that the Roman ladies used to say they had a right to be extravagant in pearls and jewels, while their husbands spent so much money in these expensive tables.

CHAPTER CXXXII.

Rome under Augustus.

1. AMONG the commodities obtained by the Romans from distant parts of the world, was manufactured silk, which they purchased of

7. Of the luxuries and necessities of life at Rome? 8. Of the manufactures of Italy?
9. Of the Mauritanian tables?

a people who came to their eastern dominions from some unknown country beyond ; but whether they were Tartars, Chinese, or Indians, is uncertain.

2. The Romans were totally unacquainted with the nature of silk. They did not know how or where it was produced ; but they were willing to give any price for it because it was rare and beautiful. At Rome it was sold for its weight in gold, so that only a few ladies of the highest rank could obtain it. Besides, it was so scarce, that they used to make their slaves unweave the thick eastern silks, to manufacture slighter ones, so that they might have two or three yards for one.

3. It was worn only by females at this period : but in the course of time, the fine gentlemen of Rome used silk in their attire, either in the form of a toga, a scarf, or a loose kind of robe ; for it was about this time that the toga began to be left off, except by clients when they waited on their patrons. But silk continued to be so expensive, that sumptuary laws were frequently made to restrict its use, and it was generally interwoven with cotton or wool ; so that it is mentioned as an instance of the extravagance of the Emperor Elagabalus, that he had a robe of pure silk.



Roman Family at Dinner.

4. But the luxury of the Romans was chiefly displayed in cookery. Their tables were supplied with the most costly viands and choicest wines, in such profusion, that the supper of a Roman citizen, when he entertained his friends, might have served for a royal banquet.

5. The dishes were often of embossed silver, so large that a boar

EXERCISES. — 1, 2. What of silk at Rome? 3. How was it worn? 4, 5. Of Roman cookery? 6. Of luxury?

might be brought to table whole; and it was about this time that they began to use table-cloths. Gentlemen, in going home from a supper, were usually attended by slaves carrying torches; and when a man of rank appeared in public, two or three slaves generally preceded him to clear the way.

6. The Romans at this period seem, indeed, to have possessed all the luxuries that wealth could procure; but they had become quite a different people from what they had been in former days; and the power of the empire, in consequence of its extent, now depended on keeping up a large military force.

CHAPTER CXXXIII.

Reign of Augustus.

1. In the reign of Augustus, a great part of Germany was brought under the dominion of Rom. The Germans then consisted of many different nations, all of a warlike character, and not more civilized than the ancient Gauls. The nobles were all warriors, and lived on their lands, which were cultivated by serfs, as in Russia at the present day.

2. They had no towns, and the country was covered with thick and extensive forests, through which there were no roads, which made it difficult as well as dangerous to carry on a war there. The Romans had never cared about making conquests in so unattractive a country; but they found it necessary to prevent the Germans from making inroads into the empire, which could only be done by reducing them to subjection, and establishing legions on the frontiers.

3. The German wars were begun about nineteen years after the battle of Actium, and were conducted, at first, by Tiberius, who was afterwards emperor, and his brother Drusus, both sons of the wife of Augustus by a former husband. Very little is known of these wars, for the Germans had neither cities nor fortified places wherein to defend themselves, so that there are no accounts of sieges, or the taking of towns; but they fought many battles, in which they were usually defeated, and obliged to seek shelter in their forests, while their lands were ravaged, and great numbers of women and children carried away for slaves.

4. In the course of twenty years, the supremacy of Rome was acknowledged in all that part of Germany which lies between the Elbe and the Rhine; but it was not firmly established; and towards the end of the reign of Augustus, the Germans partly recovered their independence by the destruction of a great Roman army, composed of the best legions of the empire.

5. This unfortunate army was under the command of the Roman general, Varus, who was enticed to follow a body of Germans through

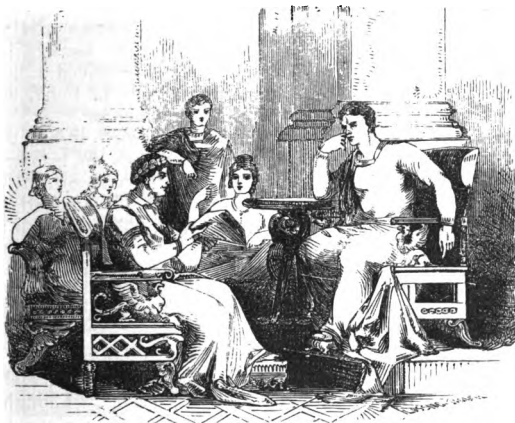
CXXXIII. — 1. What was the condition of the Germans? 2. What of their country? 3. Of the German wars? 4. What part of Germany was conquered by the Romans?

forests and marshes, into a part of the country that was unknown to him, where his troops were so hemmed in, that they could not defend themselves to advantage, and were cut to pieces. Varus and the other generals killed themselves in despair.

6. This defeat, and the loss of so many of his best soldiers, was a sad blow to the emperor, especially as it was no easy matter, at this period, to raise new legions, as the people in general were unwilling to serve in the armies; so that it had become necessary to emancipate numbers of slaves, and make soldiers of them.

7. One reason of this was, that the frontiers of the empire were guarded by garrisons, stationed in fortified camps; and the soldiers of these garrisons were obliged to remain there until they were old men, so that they were completely exiled from their country; a system that sometimes led to rebellion among them.

8. The reign of Augustus Cæsar is considered the great era of learning and the fine arts, among the ancient Romans; so that it is called the Augustan age. Every man of rank had a library; and among the many great literary men of the time, were Horace, Virgil, Ovid, and Livy, the historian. They were patronized by Augustus; and Virgil was so great a favorite that he died immensely rich.



Virgil reading his Poems to Augustus.

9. The Romans were not originally accustomed to treat their emperors with much outward ceremony, as is proved by many anecdotes that are related of Augustus Cæsar, of which the following may serve as an example. Among the official duties of the sovereign, was that of calling the citizens to account for any impropriety in their

5. What was the fate of Varus? 6, 7. What was the state of the Roman armies? 8. What is said of the Augustan age? 9. How did the Romans treat their emperors? 10. What anecdote is related of Augustus?

conduct, as the censors were authorized to do in former times, and although it appears absurd, in such times as those of Augustus, to bring any man before a tribunal on a charge of waste or extravagance, yet it was sometimes done, nevertheless; and as the emperor was censor, he could not pass by an accusation of the kind unnoticed.

10. One day, a certain knight was summoned before him to answer to a charge of having squandered his patrimony; but when his defence came to be heard, it appeared that he had improved his fortune, instead of having wasted it; on which the emperor told him he was acquitted. "Another time, Cæsar," said the knight, "before you listen to a charge against an honest man, take care that your informer is honest."

CHAPTER CXXXIV.

Reign of Augustus.

1. SOME disturbances in Spain and Gaul induced the emperor to cross the Alps and Pyrenees. He subdued the Cantabrians, who inhabited the province now called Biscay, and the Asturians. To restrain these tribes in future, he built several cities, and provided them with strong fortifications. While reposing himself in Spain from the fatigues of his campaign, Augustus received ambassadors from the Scythians, the Sarmatians, the people of India, and even from the Seres, who are supposed to be the Chinese.

2. On his recovery from a fit of illness, which spread universal alarm throughout the empire, the senate conferred the tribuneship for life upon Augustus, which rendered his person *sacro sanct*. This dignity was henceforth annexed to the imperial office, and consequently all attempts against the life of the sovereign became high treason.

3. Upon entering his tenth consulship, the senate, by oath, approved of all the acts of Augustus, and set him wholly above the power of the laws. They sometime after offered to swear not only to all the laws which he had made, but to all such as he should make in future.

4. Notwithstanding this concentration of authority in his person, Augustus admitted every one to familiarity with him, and distinguished himself by his affability and condescension. Though by his sole word he could condemn or acquit whomever he pleased, yet he gave the laws their proper course, and even pleaded in person for individuals whom he desired to protect.

5. When one of his veteran soldiers entreated his assistance, Augustus bade him apply to an advocate. "Ah!" replied the soldier "it was not by proxy that I served you at the battle of Actium. This answer so pleased the emperor, that he pleaded the soldier's cause, and gained it for him.

CXXXIV. — 1. What of the expeditions of Augustus? 2. What of his recovery from sickness? 3. Of his tenth consulship? 4. Of his familiar manners? 5, 6, 7. What anecdotes are related of him?

6. One day a petitioner approached him in so awe-struck a manner as to excite his displeasure. "Friend," said he, "remember that I am a man, and not an elephant. Be bolder."

7. Once, as Augustus was sitting in judgment, Mecænas, perceiving that he was inclined to be severe, and not being able to approach him for the crowd, threw a paper into his bosom, on which was written, "Arise, butcher!" Augustus read it without testifying any displeasure, and immediately rising from the judgment-seat, pardoned the culprits whom he was about to condemn.

CHAPTER CXXXV.

Death of Augustus.

2

1. In the midst of his unexampled power and good fortune, however, Augustus was assailed by domestic troubles. He had married Livia, the wife of Tiberius Nero. She was an imperious woman, and, conscious of the strong attachment of her husband, controlled him at her pleasure. She had two sons, Tiberius and Drusus. The former was of a temper so turbulent and obstinate, that Augustus exiled him for five years to Rhodes.

2. A still greater affliction was experienced by Augustus from the conduct of his daughter Julia, whose behavior was so abandoned that he determined at first to put her to death, but was finally induced to spare her life, and banished her to an island on the coast.

3. In the seventy-fourth year of his age, Augustus began to think of withdrawing from the fatigues of government, and of making Tiberius his partner in the empire. He accordingly invested him with nearly the same authority as he had exercised himself. He next made his will, and intrusted it to the care of the Vestal Virgins. He then ordered the census of the people to be taken, which showed the population of the city to be four millions one hundred and thirty-seven thousand.

4. Shortly after, having accompanied Tiberius in his march into Illyria, he was taken ill at Naples. Hastening toward Rome, the disorder assumed a fatal character at Nola, in Campania, and he was unable to proceed any further.

5. A few hours before his death, he ordered a mirror to be brought to him, and his hair to be combed and arranged with unusual care. He then addressed his friends who stood around him, and asked whether he had well played his part in life. All replied in the affirmative. "Then," said he, "give me your applause;" with these words he expired, A. D. 14.

6. The death of Augustus caused unfeigned and general grief throughout the empire. Some believed that he had been poisoned

CXXXV. — 1, 2 What were the domestic troubles of Augustus? 3. How did he prepare for the close of his reign? What was the population of the city? 4, 5. Describe his death. 6. What of Livia? 7. What honors were paid to the memory of Augustus?

by Livia to procure the succession more speedily for Tiberius. She took care to keep his death concealed for a time, till measures were proposed for the transmission of the imperial power, and when everything was ready she caused the decease of Augustus to be published, with the announcement that he had adopted Tiberius as his successor.

7. The honors paid to the memory of Augustus seemed to have no bounds. Temples were erected to his name : divine worship was offered to him ; and a senator named Numerius Atticus managed to turn the extravagant adulation of the people to his own benefit, by swearing that he saw Augustus ascend to heaven, for which he received a large sum of money. After this, no doubt was expressed of the divinity of the deceased emperor.

CHAPTER CXXXVI.

Accession of Tiberius.



1. TIBERIUS was hailed with extravagant joy by the senators and knights of Rome on his accession to the empire. He had lived in a

state of profound dissimulation under Augustus, and although fifty six years of age, was not yet hardy enough to show himself in his real character. He met the adulation of the Roman nobility with a duplicity equal to their own, affecting to decline the sovereign power.

2. But after long debates, he suffered himself to be persuaded to accept it. In the beginning of his reign nothing appeared but generosity, clemency and prudence. Having bound himself by oath never to depart from the policy of his predecessor, he strove to win the affections or disarm the suspicions of the virtuous Germanicus, whom Augustus had compelled him to declare his heir.

3. But the jealousies of Tiberius were greatly aggravated by a mutiny of the German legions, who offered to raise Germanicus to the throne; and though the latter firmly refused, and rebuked their disloyalty, yet Tiberius was thenceforth resolved upon his destruction. The glory which the young prince acquired in several successful campaigns against the Germans, at length induced the emperor to recall him to Rome, under the pretence of rewarding him with a triumph.

4. But he soon became anxious to remove from the city a person whose mildness and virtue were so strongly contrasted with his own tyranny and debauchery. He appointed him governor of the eastern provinces, but at the same time he sent Piso, with his infamous wife, Plancina, into Syria, giving them secret instructions to take him off by poison.

5. This atrocious deed was accomplished, but such was the grief at Rome for the death of Germanicus, and so strong were the suspicions which fell upon Piso, that he was arraigned for the murder, and escaped the vengeance of the law only by laying violent hands upon himself.

6. Tiberius now gave way to the native cruelty of his disposition, and many of the most eminent nobles were put to death for high treason. His depravity was equalled by that of his prime minister Sejanus, whose name has passed into a proverb. This ambitious favorite secretly aspired to the throne, and applied himself to win the favor of the Prætorian Guards. He was also accused of having procured the death of Drusus, the emperor's son.

7. But his most successful project was the removal of Tiberius from Rome. By his artful temptations he induced the emperor to withdraw from the cares of government into the beautiful island of Capræ, near Naples. Here he abandoned himself to all sorts of luxury and vice.

CCXXXVI. — 1. What of the accession of Tiberius? 2. How did he begin his reign?
 3. What of Germanicus? 4, 5. Of his assassination? Of Tiberius and Sejanus? 7.
 Where did Tiberius retire from Rome?

CHAPTER CXXXVII.

Crimes of Sejanus.

1. SEJANUS, having the entire administration of the empire in his hands, employed hosts of spies and informers, for the purpose of ridding himself of all obstacles. He put to death numbers of the most eminent Romans, after making them undergo the useless mockery of a trial.

2. In this manner he proceeded, removing all who appeared to stand between him and the empire, every day increasing his confidence with Tiberius and his power with the senate. The number of his statues set up in Rome exceeded even those of the emperor. People swore by his fortune in the same manner as they would have done had he been upon the throne, and he was more dreaded than the tyrant who actually wore the purple.

3. But the rapidity of his rise seemed only preparatory to the greatness of his downfall. Tiberius received secret warnings of the dangerous projects of Sejanus. He immediately despatched a messenger to Rome with a letter to the senate, instructing him to inform Sejanus that it contained an earnest recommendation to have him invested with the tribunitian power.

4. The minister, deceived by this hope, hastily convened the senate, and on presenting himself to that body, was surrounded by a horde of flatterers, congratulating him on his new dignity. But when the fatal epistle was read, in which he was accused of treason, and orders were given for his arrest, he was immediately abandoned.

5. Those who had been most servile in their flatteries now became loudest in their invectives and execrations. A hurried decree was passed, condemning Sejanus to death. This was put in execution the same day, and a general slaughter of his friends and relations followed. His innocent children, though of very tender years, were put to death with circumstances of great barbarity, and the numerous statues which had been erected to his honor were broken to pieces by the fickle multitude.

6. The death of Sejanus only inflamed the emperor's rage for further executions, and he gave orders that whoever was accused should be put to death without trial. The whole city was filled with slaughter and mourning. One Carnilius killed himself to avoid the torture which had been designed for him. "Ah!" cried Tiberius, "how has that man been able to escape me?"

7. When a prisoner earnestly entreated that he might be executed speedily, "Know," said the tyrant, "that I am not sufficiently your friend to shorten your torments." In this manner Tiberius lived, odious to the world and a burthen to himself. At length, in the

CXXXVII.—1, 2. How did Sejanus use his power? 3, 4. What of his downfall? 5. What was the fate of Sejanus and his family? 6, 7. What is related of the cruelties

twenty-second year of his reign, he began to feel the approaches of old age, and his appetite forsook him.

9. Tiberius, finding it was time to think of a successor, fixed upon Caligula, the only surviving son of his nephew and victim, Germanicus. It is said that he made choice of this prince, whose depravity was notorious, that his own enormities might be thrown into the shade by those of his successor.

9. Still, however, he cherished hopes of life, and strove by frequent change of place to drive away disquieting reflections. At last he fixed his residence at Misenum, where he fell into fainting-fits, which all believed to be mortal.

10. Caligula, supposing him dead, caused himself to be proclaimed by the prætorian bands, and went forth from the emperor's apartment amid the applauses of the multitude. On a sudden he was informed that the emperor had revived.

11. This unexpected news filled the whole court with alarm and apprehension. Every one who had before testified his joy now reassumed his pretended sorrow, and forsook the new emperor through a feigned solicitude for the fate of the old. Caligula seemed thunderstruck, and sat in a gloomy silence, expecting immediate death instead of the throne to which he had aspired.

12. Macro, the commander of the guards, averted this danger by smothering the emperor with bed-clothes, under pretence of keeping him warm. Thus died Tiberius, A. D. 37, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, having reigned twenty-two years. In his reign the forms of the constitution were retained, but its spirit and substance were completely altered. The government became a complete despotism, and the only use of the senate was to register the edicts of the sovereign.

CHAPTER CXXXVIII.

5

Reign of Caligula.

1. THE accession of Caligula was hailed with the utmost enthusiasm, both by the senate and by the people, on account of the great merit of his father Germanicus. He began his reign by liberating all the state prisoners, and dismissing the whole horde of spies and informers whom Tiberius had encouraged.

2. By these and other similar acts of generosity, he became so popular, that when he was attacked by sickness, the whole empire was filled with sorrow, and sacrifices were offered in every temple for his recovery. This sickness perhaps disordered his brain, for the savage conduct which he exhibited afterward was only worthy of a madman.

3. He ordered all the prisoners in Rome to be thrown to wild

of Tiberius? 8. Whom did he choose for his successor? 9—12. Describe the death of Tiberius.

CXXXVIII — 1. What of the accession of Caligula? 2. Of his sickness? 3. His

beasts without trial; and it was his fiendish pleasure to witness the sufferings of his victims, and protract their tortures, that they might, as he said, feel themselves dying. Finding that no one dared to oppose his sanguinary caprices, he began to regard himself as something more than a mere mortal, and to claim divine honors. He erected a temple to himself, and instituted a college of priests to superintend his own worship.



Caligula.

4. A still more absurd piece of conduct was the reverence which he claimed for his favorite horse Incitatus, whom he frequently invited to dine at the imperial table, where the animal was fed with gilded oats, and drank the most costly wines from jewelled goblets. Nothing but his death prevented him from raising this quadruped to the consulship.

5. While the whole city was scandalized by his outrageous conduct, Rome was suddenly astounded with the intelligence that the emperor had resolved to lead an army against the Germans. The grandest preparations were made for this expedition, and Caligula marched his army to the sea-shore in Gaul.

6. Here, disposing his engines and warlike machines with great parade, and drawing up his ranks in order of battle, he went on board

cruelties and follies? 4. What of his horse Incitatus? 5, 6, 7. Describe his expedition

a galley, and coasting along the shore, commanded his trumpets to sound, and the signal to be given as if for a battle. The soldiers were then ordered to gather shells from the beach and put them in their helmets.

7. These were dignified with the name of "spoils of the ocean." After this farcical triumph, the emperor called his army together, like a conquering general after a victory, and harangued them in a pompous manner, extolling their achievements. To commemorate this wonderful exploit, he ordered a lofty tower to be erected on the spot.

8. Caligula returned to Rome, where he continued his career of extravagances. He employed many inventions to imitate thunder, and would frequently defy Jupiter, crying out, "Do you conquer me or I will conquer you." He pretended to converse in whispers with the statue of that divinity, and usually seemed angry at its replies, threatening to send it back into Greece, from whence it came.

9. He built a stable of marble, and a manger of ivory for his horse and whenever he was to run a race, he stationed sentinels on the night preceding, to prevent any noises from breaking the slumbers of his favorite steed.

10. The cruelties of Caligula augmented from day to day. He put many senators to death, and then summoned them to appear. He cast great numbers of old and infirm men to wild beasts, to free the state from such unserviceable citizens. Every tenth day he sent off a certain number of victims to his menagerie, which he jocosely called "clearing his accounts."

11. Upon one occasion, being incensed with the citizens, he uttered a wish that the Roman people had but one neck, that he might despatch them all at a single blow. Finding the senate more reluctant in their adulations than he expected, he determined to massacre their whole body. But the Romans were by this time weary of a monster equally wicked and contemptible, and a conspiracy was organized for his destruction, headed by Cherea, the commander of the Prætorian Guards, whom the emperor had long treated with insult.

CHAPTER CXXXIX.

Assassination of Caligula.

1. THE Palatine Games, which lasted four days, were now at hand, and this was judged a favorable opportunity for accomplishing the purpose of the conspirators. The first three days were allowed to pass, and Cherea fixed upon the fourth day, when Caligula, after the conclusion of the games, would have occasion to retire through a private gallery to the baths near the palace.

2. The last day was more splendid than any of the preceding, and

against the Germans. 8. How did he defy Jupiter? 9. Of his horse's stable, &c.? 10. His cruelties? 11. What saying is related of him?

CXXXIX.—1. When was the conspiracy against Caligula designed to take effect?

the emperor seemed more sprightly and condescending than usual. He enjoyed the amusement of seeing the people scramble for the fruits and other things which were thrown by his order among them, being totally unsuspecting of the plot against him.

3. But in the mean time, some intelligence of the design began to circulate among the multitude, and had the tyrant any friends remaining, he could not have failed to discover it. A senator who stood near him, asking one of his acquaintances whether he had heard anything new, was answered "No." "Then," returned he, "you must know that this day will be represented a piece called the Death of a Tyrant." The other immediately understood the hint, but advised him to be cautious.

4. The conspirators waited many hours with extreme anxiety, and Caligula seemed resolved to spend the whole day without taking any refreshment. This unexpected delay exasperated Cherea, and had he not been restrained, he would have fallen upon the emperor in the midst of all the people.

5. While he was hesitating, one of the attendants of Caligula persuaded him to go into the bath and take some slight refreshment, that he might the better enjoy the rest of the entertainment. The emperor rising up, the conspirators used every precaution to keep off the throng, and to surround him, on pretence of seeing to his comfort.

6. Upon entering a little vaulted gallery that led to the bath, Cherea struck him to the ground with his dagger, saying, "Tyrant! think upon this!" The other conspirators closed in upon him, and while he was resisting and crying out that he was not dead, they despatched him with thirty wounds.

7. Such was the merited end of Caligula, after a reign of less than four years. His character may be summed up in the words of Seneca, who says, "Nature seems to have produced him for the purpose of showing what mischief can be effected by the greatest vices supported by the highest authority."

CHAPTER CXL.

Reign of Claudius.

1. CLAUDIUS, the brother of Germanicus, and uncle of the late emperor, a prince of weak intellect, was raised to the throne by the conspirators, and this choice was sanctioned by the senate. This wretched idiot, thus placed at the head of the empire, was, during his entire reign, a mere puppet in the hands of worthless and unprincipled favourites. Among these, the most infamous was the Empress Messalina.

2. The reign of Claudius began with the punishment of the con

2. What took place the last day? 3. What anecdote is given of a senator? 4, 5, 6. Describe the death of Caligula. 7. His character.

CXL. — 1. Who succeeded Caligula? 2. What became of the conspirators? 3. What

spirators against Caligula. These were put to death, not for the deed they had done, but because it was suspected that they had a design to restore the ancient constitution.

3. Claudius, notwithstanding his imbecile character, undertook an expedition into Britain, where the native tribes were wasting their strength in mutual wars. The Romans now commenced a series of campaigns, which eventually led to the complete subjugation of the southern part of the island.

4. The senate granted Claudius a magnificent triumphal procession on his return, and Messalina, whose scandalous conduct was now notorious, accompanied the emperor in a stately chariot during the solemnity.

5. The cruelty of this woman was as great as her infamy, and at length her crimes became so insufferable, that Claudius put her to death. Soon afterwards, the emperor married his niece, Agrippina, the widow of Domitius Ahenobarbus, by whom she had one son. This youth was originally called by his father's name, but he is better known in history by that of Nero.

6. The new empress showed herself avaricious, ambitious and cruel. She ruled the emperor, appeared with him in the senate, sat on the same throne during all public ceremonies, and gave audience to foreign princes and ambassadors. She at length prevailed upon her husband to adopt her son, Nero, and bequeath him the empire, in preference to his own son, Britannicus.

7. But Claudius showing some signs of an intention to restore the succession, Agrippina caused him to be poisoned. Having previously gained over the commander of the Prætorian Guard, she concealed her husband's death till she had taken the steps necessary for the accession of her son.

CHAPTER CXLI.

Reign of Nero.

1. NERO became emperor A. D. 54. He had been nurtured in the midst of crimes, and educated for the stage rather than for the throne. He was but seventeen years of age at his accession, and he looked on the empire as only an extensive field for the indulgence of his passions.

2. He soon became uneasy of his mother's imperious rule, and Agrippina, finding herself neglected, threatened to transfer the throne to Britannicus. This was the signal for the destruction of the young prince. Poison was administered to him by one of the emperor's emissaries, and a few hours after his death, his body was exhibited to the public; for so little care had the emperor of concealing his share

took place in Britain? 4. What of the triumph of Claudius? 5. Of Messalina? 6. Of Agrippina? 7. Describe the death of Claudius.

CXLI. -- 1. What of the accession of Nero? 2. Of Agrippina and Britannicus? 3. Of

in the murder, that the preparations for the funeral were made before the poison was administered.



Nero.

3. An infamous woman, named Poppæa Sabina, incited Nero to still greater crimes. Persuaded that during the lifetime of Agrippina she could not remove Octavia, the wife of Nero, and become herself a partner in the empire, she urged the latter to murder his mother.

4. Nero himself was anxious for the removal of one whom he so greatly feared. But he dreaded the resentment of the Romans, who, in spite of her crimes, revered the last representative of the family of Germanicus. After various attempts to destroy her secretly had failed, he despatched a body of armed men to her house, where they murdered her in her bed.

5. The death of Burrhus, an able statesman, happened shortly afterwards; this event, which was ascribed to poison, was a great public misfortune, for the influence of Burrhus had restrained the emperor from many extravagances in which he was prone to indulge.

6. Tigellinus, a person infamous for every crime, became the new minister, and Nero no longer kept within the bounds of ordinary

Poppea Sabina? 4. What was the fate of Agrippina? 5. Of Burrhus? 6. Of Tigellinus?

decency. Seneca was banished from the court, Octavia was divorced and afterwards murdered, and finally Poppæa was married to the emperor.

7. A tour through Italy gave Nero an opportunity of appearing as a singer on the stage at Naples, and he was excessively gratified by the applause with which the multitude fed his vanity. Soon after his return to Rome, a dreadful conflagration, which lasted nine days, destroyed the greater part of the city, and it was generally believed that it had been kindled by the emperor's orders.



Nero witnessing the Burning of Rome.

8. It is said that he stood upon a tower during the conflagration, enjoying the sight, and singing in a theatrical manner, to the music of his harp, the burning of Troy. To silence the report of his being the cause of this calamity, Nero charged it upon the Christians, who then began to attract notice in Rome.

9. Nothing could be more dreadful than the persecution raised against them on this account. Some were covered with the skins of wild beasts, and in that disguise devoured by dogs. Some were crucified, and others burnt alive. "When the day was not sufficient for their tortures," says Tacitus, "the flames in which they perished served to illuminate the night." Nero, dressed like a charioteer, regaled himself with a view of their tortures from his gardens, where he entertained the people with their sufferings.

10. Of the fourteen quarters into which Rome was divided, only four remained entire after the conflagration. On the ruins of a portion of the city, Nero erected a palace, which he called his Golden

lines? 7. Of Nero's tour through Italy? 8. What was his behavior during the burning of Rome? 9. Describe the persecution of the Christians. 10, 11. Describe Nero's Golden Palace.

House. It contained within its enclosure artificial lakes, extensive woods, parks, gardens, orchards, vineyards, &c. The entrance of the Golden House was sufficiently lofty to admit a colossal statue of the emperor, one hundred and twenty feet high. The galleries, which rested on three rows of tall pillars, were each a mile in length.

11. The roof was covered with tiles of gold, the walls were overlaid with the same metal, and richly adorned with precious stones and mother-of-pearl. The ceiling of one of the banqueting-rooms represented the firmament beset with stars, turning about incessantly, night and day, and showering perfumed water on the guests.

CHAPTER CXLII.

Crimes of Nero.

1. THE extravagant expenditures caused by this sumptuous edifice, the restoration of the city, and the emperor's luxuries, exhausted the public treasury, and led to a system of plunder and extortion which nearly caused the dissolution of the empire. Italy, the provinces, and the confederate nations, were pillaged and laid waste. The temples of the gods and the houses of individuals were stripped of their treasures, but still enough could not be obtained to support the emperor's boundless prodigality.

2. A conspiracy was planned against him by Cneius Piso, and great numbers of the Roman nobility engaged in it. The discovery of this afforded Nero an opportunity to glut his sanguinary disposition. Most of the leading nobles were put to death, and among the other victims were Lucan, the poet, and Seneca, the philosopher.

3. In the midst of the massacres, Nero appeared on the stage as a candidate for the prize of music, which of course he gained. About the same time he killed the empress Poppæa by a kick. It may appear strange that such repeated atrocities should not have raised the whole Roman people in rebellion.

4. But the lower classes felt nothing of the imperial despotism, and did not sympathize with the nobles in their calamities, because the ancient oppressions of the aristocracy were still remembered. They were, besides, gratified by a monthly distribution of corn, by occasional gifts of wine and meat, and by the magnificent shows of the circus. In fact, the periods of tyranny were the golden days of the poor; and Nero was far more popular with the rabble than the most eminent man of the republic had ever been.

5. Not satisfied with his Italian fame, Nero resolved to display his musical skill at the Olympic Games, and for this purpose he passed over into Greece; where he received great applauses; yet he did not abstain from plundering the country during his visit. While he was

CXLII 1. What was the consequence of Nero's extravagances? 2. Who moved a conspiracy against him? What was the consequence? 3. What of Nero on the stage? His cruelty? 4. How did the lower classes regard him? 5. What of the Olympic

thus engaged the rebellion broke out in Palestine, which led, in the end, to the destruction of the Jewish nation.

6. Soon after Nero's return to Rome, formidable insurrections burst forth in the western provinces. Julius Vindex raised the standard of revolt in Gaul. Servius Galba followed his example in Spain. From this moment the tyrant considered his ruin almost certain. He received the account of Galba's revolt while he was at supper, and instantly, struck with terror, he overturned the table with his foot, breaking two crystal vases of immense value.

7. He then fell into a swoon, and on coming to himself, tore his clothes and struck his head, crying out that he was utterly undone. He next called for the assistance of Locusta, a woman famous in the art of poisoning, to furnish him with the means of death; but being prevented in this, and the revolt becoming general, he ran from house to house, but every door was shut against him.

8. He then desired that one of his favorite gladiators might despatch him, but no one would obey. "Alas!" cried he, "have I neither friend nor enemy?" Then running desperately forth, he seemed resolved to throw himself into the Tiber; but his courage failed him; he made a sudden stop, and asked for some sacred place where he might collect his fortitude, and meet death with becoming spirit.

CHAPTER CXLIII.

Death of Nero.

1. In this distress, Phaon, one of his freedmen, offered Nero his country-house, about four miles distant, where he might for some time remain concealed. The emperor gladly accepted the offer, and with his head covered, hiding his face with his handkerchief, he mounted on horseback, attended by four of his domestics. His journey, though short, was crowded with adventures.

2. An earthquake gave him the first alarm. The lightning of heaven next flashed in his face. Round him he heard nothing but confused noises from the camp, and the cries of the people imprecating a thousand curses on his head. A traveller, meeting him on his way, said, "There go men in pursuit of Nero." Another asked him whether there were any news of Nero in the city.

3. Amid such encounters as these, his horse took fright at a dead body that lay near the road. Nero dropped his handkerchief, and was recognized by a soldier who happened to be passing. The soldier accosted him by name, and Nero leaped from his horse, abandoned the highway, and entered a thicket that led toward the back part of Phaon's house, making the best of his way among the reeds and brambles with which the place was overgrown.

Games? 6. What insurrection broke out? 7, 8. What effect had the news upon Nero?

CXLIII.—1. Who assisted Nero to escape? 2, 3. What accidents attended it?

4. During this interval, the senate, finding that the Prætorian Guards had taken the part of Galba, proclaimed him emperor, and condemned Nero to die "according to the rigor of the ancient laws." When he was told of this, he asked what it meant, and was informed that the criminal was to be stripped naked, set in a pillory, and be beaten to death with rods.

5. Nero was so terrified at this that he seized two poniards which he had brought with him, and made a movement as if to stab himself; but again losing courage, he returned them to their sheaths, pretending that the critical moment had not yet arrived.

6. He then desired Sporus, one of his attendants, to begin the lamentation which was used at funerals. He next entreated that one of those around him would die, to give him courage by his example. Afterwards he began to reproach himself for cowardice, crying out, "Does this become Nero? Is this trifling well-timed? No! let me be courageous!"

7. In fact, he had no time to lose, for the soldiers in pursuit of him were just then approaching the house. Upon hearing the sound of their horses' feet, Nero set a dagger to his throat, with which, by the assistance of Epaphroditus, his secretary, he gave himself a mortal wound.

8. He was not quite dead when the officer sent by the senate arrived and endeavored to stop the blood. Nero, looking at him sternly, said, "It is too late. Is this your fidelity?" and then, with his eyes fixed and frightfully staring, he expired.

9. His body was interred privately, but honorably, and many of the lower ranks, whose favor he had won by his extravagant liberalities, lamented his loss, honored his memory, and brought flowers to decorate his tomb.

10. During the reign of Nero the provinces were harassed by frequent revolts. The Iceni in Britain took up arms under their queen, Boadicea, and falling unexpectedly on the Roman colonies and garrisons, they destroyed great numbers both of the Romans and their allies. Could this courageous female chieftain have secured the coöperation of all the native tribes, she might have liberated her country.

11. This formidable insurrection was quelled by Suetonius Paulinus, who added the island of Anglesey to the Roman dominions, thus taking from the Druids, who were the secret instigators of resistance to all foreign power, the great centre both of their religion and their influence.

4. What did the senate decree? 5. What was the behavior of Nero on hearing this? 6, 7, 8, 9. Describe his death. 10. What of Boadicea and the Britons? 11. What of Suetonius Paulinus?

CHAPTER CXLIV.

Galba and Otho.

1. GALBA WAS proclaimed emperor A. D. 68. He was descended from an illustrious family, but was now in the seventy-third year of his age. He journeyed slowly towards Rome, and Nymphidius, the minister of Nero, took advantage of this to make an attempt for the empire himself, by bribing the Prætorian Guards.

2. But his conduct during the reign of Nero had rendered him so deservedly unpopular, that he was murdered by the very soldiers who had taken his money. This rash conspiracy induced Galba to sully the commencement of his reign by unreasonable severities, which gave the more offence to his subjects, as such a course had not been anticipated.

3. It was soon discovered that the new emperor, however virtuous himself, was the tool of unworthy favorites, who, under the sanction of his name, plundered the people, and deprived the soldiers of their usual donations. A revolt of the legions in Upper Germany induced Galba to nominate as his successor Cneius Piso, who was greatly esteemed.

4. But this appointment gave great offence to Otho, who had been foremost to espouse the cause of Galba. Taking advantage of the discontent of the Prætorian Guards, he went to their camp, and easily persuaded these turbulent soldiers to proclaim him emperor. In the struggle which ensued, Galba was killed.

5. Otho, thus raised to the empire, A. D. 69, was, during his brief reign, a passive instrument in the hands of the licentious soldiers. Scarcely had he seated himself on the throne, when a rival started up in the person of Vitellius, who commanded the legions in Lower Germany.

6. Otho departed from Rome in all haste, to give him battle. Both parties hastened to meet each other with such precipitation, that three considerable battles were fought within the space of as many days.

7. At length Otho's forces suffered a serious defeat at Bedriacum, near Cremona, and the emperor, having learned the news, assembled the remainder of his soldiers, thanked them for their fidelity, and announced his intention to withdraw from the contest, that he might not be the cause of further bloodshed.

8. The same night he committed suicide, having reigned but three months and five days. His soldiers deeply regretted his death, and it must be admitted, that his resolution to die, in order to save his country from the horrors of a civil war, had something in it truly heroic.

CXLIV. — 1. Who succeeded Nero? 2. What of Nymphidius? 3. How was the empire governed under Galba? 4. What was the fate of Galba? 5. Who succeeded him? 6. What rival appeared against Otho? 7, 8. What was the end of Otho?

CHAPTER CXLV.

Reign of Vitellius.

1. VITELLIUS having been declared emperor by the senate, pardoned all the adherents of Otho, and then set out for Rome, in all the splendor and magnificence which he could command. While he was sitting in painted galleys, bedecked with garlands and flowers, and feasting on delicacies, his soldiers were plundering in every quarter, without restraint.

2. He entered Rome as if it were a conquered city, and the senate and people marched before him as if they had been prisoners taken in battle. After haranguing the citizens, and receiving the homage which his liberal promises had drawn forth, he quietly settled himself in his palace, to enjoy the pleasures which his gluttony and luxurious habits had rendered the chief happiness of his life.

3. The administration of public affairs was intrusted to the lowest and vilest of his favorites, and the soldiers forgot the art of war amid their unrestrained debaucheries. Vitellius thought of nothing but regaling himself with costly viands, and had learned the art of renewing the pleasure of his meals by disgorging the food which had already ministered to his appetite.



Vitellius and Guests at a Banquet.

4. The details of his gluttony would detract from the dignity of history. He invited himself to breakfast with one man, to dinner with another, and to supper with a third. The influence of his

courtiers depended on the frequency of their entertainments, and the skill with which they were managed.

5. A dinner which was given to him by his brother Lucius, consisted of two thousand dishes of fish, and seven thousand of fowl. One of the dishes, called the "Shield of Minerva," was an olio composed of the sounds of the fish called *scarrus*, the brains of woodcocks and pheasants, the tongues of rare birds, and the spawn of lampreys from the Caspian Sea.

6. Not content with the gratification of his palate, Vitellius now sought for pleasure in acts of cruelty. Even those who ate with him at the same table, were put to death by him without compunction. When he visited one of his parasites who lay ill with a raging fever, he put poison in a cup of water, and administered it with his own hand.

7. The monster even avowed that he derived pleasure from the torments of his victims. On one occasion, when he had sentenced a father to death, he executed his two sons with him for begging the life of their parent.

8. When a Roman knight was dragged to execution, and expected to save his life by declaring that he had made the emperor his heir, Vitellius obtained a sight of the will, and finding that he was only joint heir with another, he put both to death to secure all the property to himself.

9. These intolerable tyrannies at length roused the indignation even of the abject Romans. The legions of the east began the revolt, and proclaimed Vespasian emperor while he was carrying on the siege of Jerusalem. Their example was followed by the armies in Mæsia, Pannonia, and Egypt.

10. Vespasian was declared emperor at Alexandria, without his consent, but the soldiers compelled him to accept the high dignity. He assembled his officers to consult upon measures to be pursued in this conjunction, and it was resolved that his son Titus should conduct the war in Judea, that Mutianus should proceed to Italy with the greater part of the legions, and that Vespasian should levy a new army in the east.)

CHAPTER CXLVI.

Death of Vitellius.

1. VITELLIUS, when he heard of the revolt, made preparations for defence. His army, under the command of Valens and Cæcina, met the forces of Vespasian, commanded by Antonius Primus, near Cremona. When a battle was expected, Cæcina deserted to Vespasian, but Antonius led on the attack.

2. The battle, which lasted till night, was renewed the next

was his administration? 4. 5. What of his gluttony? 6, 7, 8. His cruelties? 9. What insurrections arose? 10. What was the conduct of Vespasian?

morning, when the troops of Vitellius gave way, and were routed with a loss of thirty thousand men. The approach of the victors to Rome was opposed by a small number of troops that guarded the passes of the Apennines.

3. But when Vitellius heard that his fleet had declared against him, he made an offer to resign the empire to Vespasian. In the confusion occasioned at Rome by these proceedings, one Sabinus seized the capitol, but the soldiers of Vitellius attacked him; in their struggle the capitol was set on fire and totally destroyed, with all its valuable furniture, ornaments, works of art, and ancient public records.

4. Antonius, disregarding all the messages and offers of Vitellius, marched, without delay, to Rome. He attacked the city on three sides, drove the defenders within the walls, and slaughtered them in great numbers. The reckless and abandoned populace seemed insensible to the disgrace of the empire. While all around them presented scenes of bloodshed and horror, they celebrated the riotous feast of the Saturnalia, and thought only of drunkenness and debauchery.

5. Amidst this chaos of slaughter, riot, and vice, the wretched Vitellius wandered about, forsaken even by his own slaves. The troops of Antonius at length made themselves masters of the city, and the emperor was dragged from the obscure hiding-place into which he had crept for concealment.

6. Hoping to prolong his wretched existence, he begged that he might be kept in prison till the arrival of Vespasian, to whom he promised to communicate important secrets. His petition, however, was vain. The soldiers, binding his hands, and putting a halter round his neck, dragged him, half naked, into the forum, loading him with curses and insults.

7. They tied his hair backwards, and held the point of a sword beneath his chin, to prevent him from hiding his face. Some threw mud upon him, others struck him with their fists, others ridiculed his red face and enormous corpulence. Finally, they killed him with blows, dragged his body through the streets, and threw it into the Tiber.

8. Thus terminated the reign of Vitellius, the most ignoble and beastly of all the Roman emperors; it lasted only eight months. The soldiers, availing themselves of the opportunity for plunder, pursued the fugitives into the houses and temples, and committed every species of rapine and cruelty.

9. But the arrival of Mutianus, the general of Vespasian, put a stop to these atrocities, and Rome was reëstablished in tranquillity. The senate and the army concurred in declaring Vespasian emperor, and messengers were sent to him in Egypt, requesting him to return to Rome, A. D. 69.

CXLVI. — 1. What of Valens and Cæcina? 2. Of the battle of Cremona? 3, 4. What happened at Rome? 5, 6, 7. Describe the death of Vitellius. 8, 9. What followed at Rome?

CHAPTER CXLVII.

Reign of Vespasian.

1. VESPASIAN commanded the Roman armies in the east during the preceding events, which resulted in elevating him to the throne. His arrival in the city restored tranquillity, and diffused universal joy throughout the empire. His first care was to restore the discipline of the army. He next revived the authority of the senate, supplying its diminished ranks with eminent men from the provinces and colonies.

2. Finally, he reformed the courts of law, which had long ceased to show any regard to justice. The virtues of Vespasian, supported by a firm temper, led to a great improvement in the social condition of Rome. His only fault was an extravagant love of money.

3. The Jews, who had risen in rebellion some time previous, were completely subdued during the reign of Vespasian. These people, deceived by false prophets, who promised them a temporal deliverance, persevered in their rebellion long after every reasonable chance of success had disappeared.

4. They were divided into hostile factions, who fought against each other in the streets of Jerusalem, while the Roman armies were battering its walls, and they refused proffered mercy when the Roman standards were set upon their battlements.



Vespasian before Jerusalem.

5 Vespasian and his son Titus carried on the war against them

CXLVII. — 1. How did Vespasian begin his reign? 2. What was his character? 3. What of the Jews? 4. Their factions? 5. What of the siege and capture of Jerusalem?

for some time, but when the former departed for Rome, to take possession of the empire, the command was left with Titus. The siege of Jerusalem was pressed with such vigor, and the Jews were at length so exhausted by famine and their intestine wars, that the Romans captured the city by storm, A. D. 72.

6. The punishment inflicted upon this devoted people was dreadful. The city and temple were reduced to heaps of shapeless ruins; the best and bravest of the nation fell by the swords of the Romans or their own hands; most of the wretched survivors were sold into slavery; and the Jews, since that period, dispersed over the face of the earth, have become outcasts and wanderers among nations.

7. Titus and his father were honored with a splendid triumph at Rome on account of this success, and the rich ornaments of the temple of Jerusalem were displayed in the procession. A triumphal arch was also erected to Titus, on which his noble deeds were sculptured. This interesting structure remains standing at the present day.

CHAPTER CXLVIII.

Reign of Vespasian, continued.

1. VESPASIAN, having settled all the affairs of the empire in tranquillity, had the satisfaction of shutting the temple of Janus, which had been open for six years. He then applied himself to the task of securing the welfare of the people by moral as well as political reforms.

2. He restored the ancient discipline of the army; he abridged and improved the course of proceedings in courts of justice, and it was said that during his long reign no individual suffered from injustice or a severe decree.

3. Vespasian extended his fostering care to the arts and sciences, to the restoration of the public buildings, and the improvement of the city. He patronized Josephus, the Jewish historian, Quintilian, the rhetorician, and Pliny, the naturalist. He invited to Rome the most celebrated masters and artificers, from every part of the world.

4. He restored the capitol to its original splendor; he built the celebrated amphitheatre, whose ruins, now known by the name of the Coliseum, attest the grandeur of ancient Rome. He also founded new cities, and repaired the old ones which had suffered from the devastations of his predecessors.

5. The clemency of Vespasian was not less celebrated than his wisdom. He settled a handsome dowry on the daughter of Vitellius; and when plots were organized against him, he refused to punish the conspirators. The only exceptions to this mild and forgiving policy,

6. What was the fate of the Jews and their city? 7. Of the triumph of Titus and Vespasian?

CXLVIII. — 1. What of the temple of Janus? 2, 3. Of Vespasian's administration? 4. Of his building? 5. Of his clemency? 6. What was the fate of Sabinus? 7. What is said of Vespasian's avarice?

occurred in the case of Julius Sabinus, who had proclaimed himself emperor on the death of Vitellius.

6. This rash aspirant for the purple, after having been defeated by Vespasian's army, concealed himself for nine years in a cave, where he was attended by his faithful wife Empona, who provided him with the means of subsistence. Sabinus was at length discovered, and carried prisoner to Rome, where he was put to death.

7. Vespasian, notwithstanding the wisdom that characterized his administration, has been charged with avarice and rapacity. He revived taxes which had fallen into disuse, and was believed to have made great profits by speculations in trade. Perhaps these acts may be excused by the exhausted state of the treasury when he came to the throne, and the necessities occasioned by the inroads of the barbarians, who ravaged the eastern provinces till they were finally defeated by Titus.

CHAPTER CXLIX.

Reign of Titus.



Titus.

1. AFTER a reign of ten years, Vespasian died of an illness, in Campania, A. D. 79. He was succeeded by Titus, though some

opposition was made by Domitian, his brother, who alleged that his father's will had been altered.

2. Titus, in his youth, had been fond of pleasure and dissipation, yet no sooner did he ascend the throne than he reformed his habits, and became a pattern of regularity and moderation. His generosity and love of justice, his hatred of informers, his care to prevent dissensions, his obliging disposition, and his readiness on all occasions to do good, procured for him the enviable appellation of the Delight of Mankind.

3. Having called to mind one evening that he had done no beneficent action within the past twenty-four hours, he exclaimed, "I have lost a day!" an expression which has since become proverbial.

4. During the reign of Titus, A. D. 79, happened the greatest eruption of Vesuvius that has ever been known, causing immense damage, and overwhelming the cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii. In this catastrophe, the celebrated naturalist, Pliny the Elder, lost his life. His nephew, Pliny the Younger, has given a most interesting account of this event in one of his letters, from which we shall make the following extract:—

5. "My uncle was at that time with the fleet under his command, at Misenum. On the 24th of August, about one in the afternoon, my mother desired him to observe a cloud which appeared, of a very unusual size and shape. He had just returned from enjoying the benefit of the sun, and after bathing in cold water and taking a slight repast, had retired to his study. He immediately rose and went out upon an eminence from which he might more distinctly view this very singular phenomenon. It was not at that distance discernible from what mountain this cloud issued, but it was found afterward to proceed from Vesuvius.

6. "I cannot give a more exact description of its figure, than by comparing it to that of a pine tree; for it shot up to a great height in the form of a tall trunk, which spread at the top into a sort of branches, occasioned, I suppose, either by the force of the internal vapor which impelled the cloud upwards, decreasing in strength as it advanced, or by the cloud being pressed back by its own weight, and thus expanding. It appeared sometimes bright, and sometimes dark and spotted, apparently more or less impregnated with earth and cinders.

7. "This uncommon appearance excited my uncle's philosophical curiosity to take a nearer view of it. He accordingly ordered a light vessel to be prepared, and offered me the liberty, if I thought proper, to attend him. I rather chose to continue the employment in which I was engaged, for it happened that he had given me a certain writing to copy.

8. "As he was going out of the house with his tablets in his hand, he was met by the sailors belonging to the galleys stationed at Retina, from which they had fled in the utmost terror, for that port being situated at the foot of Vesuvius, they had no other way to

CXLIX. — 1. Who succeeded Vespasian? 2. What was the character of Titus? 3. What saying is recorded of him? 4. What remarkable event happened in his reign? 5—19. Relate the story of the death of Pliny the Naturalist.

escape than by sea. They conjured him, therefore, not to proceed and expose his life to such imminent danger. He altered his intention, and instead of gratifying his philosophical spirit, he resigned it to the more magnanimous principle of aiding the distressed.

9. "With this view, he ordered the fleet immediately to put to sea, and went himself on board, with an intention of assisting not only Retina, but the other towns which stood thick upon that beautiful coast. Hastening to the place, therefore, from which others fled with the utmost terror, he steered his direct course to the point of danger, and with so much calmness and presence of mind as to be able to make and dictate his observations upon the appearance and progress of that dreadful scene.

10. "He was now so near the mountain that the cinders, which grew thicker and hotter the more he advanced, fell into the ships, together with pumice-stones and black pieces of burning rock. They were likewise in danger, not only of being left aground by the sudden retreat of the sea, but also from the vast fragments which rolled down from the mountain and obstructed all the shore. Here he stopped to consider whether he should return back, to which the pilot advising him, 'Fortune,' said he, 'befriends the brave; steer to Pomponianus.'

11. "Pomponianus was then at Stabiae, separated by a gulf which the sea, after many windings, forms upon that shore. Pomponianus had already sent his baggage on board; for though he was not at that time in actual danger, yet being extremely near, he was determined, if it should increase, to put to sea as soon as the wind should change.

12. "It was favorable, however, for carrying my uncle to Pomponianus, whom he found in the greatest consternation; and embracing him with tenderness, he encouraged and exhorted him to keep up his spirits. The more to dissipate his fears, he ordered his servants, with an air of unconcern, to carry him to the baths; and after having bathed, he sat down to supper with cheerfulness, or at least the appearance of it.

13. "In the mean while, the fire of Vesuvius flamed forth from several parts of the mountain with great violence, which the darkness of the night contributed to render still more visible and dreadful. But my uncle, in order to calm the apprehensions of his friend, assured him it was only the conflagration of the villages which the country people had abandoned.

14. "After this, he retired to rest, and was so little discomposed as to fall into a deep sleep. The court which led to his apartment being now almost filled with stones and ashes, it would have been impossible, if he had delayed much longer, for him to have made his way out; it was, therefore, thought proper to awaken him. He got up, and joined Pomponianus and the rest of the company.

15. "They consulted together whether it would be most prudent to trust to the houses, which now shook from side to side with violent convulsions, or flee to the open fields, where the stones and cinders fell in large showers, and threatened them with instant destruction.

16. "In this distress they resolved for the fields, as the less dan-

gerous of the two ; a resolution which, while the rest of the company were hurried into by their fears, my uncle embraced upon cool and deliberate consideration. They went out, having pillows tied upon their heads with napkins, as a defence against the storm of stones which rained round them.

17. "It was now day everywhere else, but *there* a deeper darkness prevailed than in the blackest night ; they had, however, torches and other lights. They thought it expedient to go down further upon the shore, in order to observe if they might safely put out to sea ; but they found the waves still running excessively high.

18. "There, my uncle, having drunk a draught or two of cold water, laid himself down upon a sailcloth, when immediately the flames, preceded by a strong smell of sulphur, dispersed the rest of the company and forced him to rise. He raised himself up with the assistance of two of his servants, and instantly fell down dead.

19. "He was suffocated, as I conjecture, by some noxious vapor, having always had weak lungs, and being frequently subject to a difficulty of breathing. As soon as it was light again, which was not till the third day after, his body was found entire, and without any marks of violence, exactly in the posture in which he fell, and looking more like a man asleep than dead."

CHAPTER CL.

Herculaneum and Pompeii.

1. THERE can be no doubt, however, that the inhabitants of Herculaneum and Pompeii had sufficient warning of the approaching calamity to make their escape, and that most of them did so ; but it is evident that some of them delayed their flight, until it was too late to save themselves, as is proved by the remains of human beings, found in situations that showed how instantaneously death must have overtaken them.

2. Seventeen persons were thus discovered in the cellar of a house at Pompeii, enclosed in a hard substance, which probably burst into the vault in a liquid form, and hardened as it cooled. When this cellar was excavated, the perfect mould of a woman with a child in her arms was found in the solid substance that had filled it ; and within this mould were two skeletons, the larger of which had a chain of gold round the neck, and rings on the fingers.

3. In the barracks were discovered the remains of two soldiers. chained to the stocks, who had, no doubt, been forgotten amid the terror, darkness, and confusion of that dreadful day. Those who escaped from the devoted cities would naturally carry away with them all their most valuable effects ; nor could they have imagined that what they left behind them would be of so much historical

CL. — 1. What became of the inhabitants of Herculaneum and Pompeii ? 2. What discovery was made in a cellar at Pompeii ? 3. What is said of the barracks ? 4. How

importance in after ages, when all other traces of the domestic life of the Romans would have long since been obliterated.



Roman Villa

4. The houses at Pompeii and Herculaneum, and, most probably, of all the provincial towns of Italy, in the time of the Roman emperors, were only one or two stories high, consisting of a number of small rooms built round a court, over the entrance of which was written the name of the owner. The shops were open to the streets, with folding doors, like a coach-house, and signs painted over them, denoting the trade carried on within. At Pompeii, many of these were taverns, where hot wine, and a liquor, supposed to be mead, were sold.

5. Some of the wine was still remaining in earthen vessels of various forms, called Amphoræ; and drinking cups were standing on the marble slabs, when the cities were reöpened. Olives were also found, in a jar, in a wonderful state of preservation; a box of pills stood on the counter of an apothecary; and in a fruiterer's shop, were chestnuts, walnuts, and almonds, without any signs of decay.

6. The articles for domestic and professional use were very similar to our own, and prove that the Romans were perfectly well acquainted with the useful arts; since, among the numerous relics so strangely preserved, are needles, scissors, compasses, fine surgical instruments, silver spoons, and all kinds of kitchen utensils, as well as tools for working at different trades.

7. But the most remarkable specimens of Roman art are the metal stamps used by trades-people to mark their goods, and also to impress

were the houses of Pompeii built? The shops? 5. What of the wine found at Pompeii? The olives, &c.? 6. What of the articles for domestic use? 7. The stamps? What is said of printing?

letters on wax, for the purpose of teaching children to read. No that there was anything wonderful in the stamps themselves; but how was it, we may ask, that a people so highly civilized, and actually practising the art of printing to the extent of marking names, should not have thought of applying it to the nobler purposes of spreading knowledge over the world? If the Romans had possessed printed books, there would probably never have been any dark ages in Europe.

CHAPTER CLI.

Reign of Domitian.



The Wife of Domitian procuring his Assassination.

1. **TITUS** was carried off by a fever, in the third year of his reign. He was succeeded by his brother, **Domitian**, who was suspected of having contributed to this catastrophe by poison. The new emperor began his reign with the character of a liberal, just, and humane prince. He refused the legacies which had been left him, because the testators had children of their own.

2. He sat whole days revising the sentences of the judges, and he detested every sort of cruelty to such a degree that he forbade the sacrifice of oxen. He furnished the libraries which had suffered by fire with new books, and sent persons to Alexandria to transcribe manuscripts for this purpose.

3. These fair promises, however, were soon blighted. The mind of **Domitian** became engrossed with the pursuits of archery and

gaming, and his chief ambition was to entertain the public with sports and exhibitions; and to preside in ostentatious pomp for the purpose of distributing rewards.

4. His hours of seclusion were spent in killing flies and stabbing them with a bodkin. One of his servants, Vibius, being asked, on a certain occasion, whether any person was with the emperor, answered, "No one, not even a fly."

5. His next passion seems to have been for military reputation, which led him to envy the glory of his generals. One of these, Agricola, made a successful campaign against the Caledonians, and defeated their chief, Galgacus. He sailed round Britain, and discovered for the first time that it was an island; he also discovered the Orcades, or Orkney Islands, and subjected them to the Roman power.

6. For these brilliant successes, Agricola was envied and hated by Domitian, who recalled him to Italy under the pretence of appointing him to the government of Syria. But on his arrival at Rome, he was received with great coolness, and retired to private life. He was shortly after taken ill, and died, not without strong suspicions of being poisoned by order of the emperor.

7. In order to make himself a great general, Domitian now organized an army and marched into Gaul, pretending an expedition against the Germans. But this mighty attempt came to nothing, and the emperor never saw the face of an enemy.

8. Notwithstanding this, Domitian took to himself the honors of a triumph, and returned to Rome in pompous array, carrying with him a number of slaves dressed like Germans, whom he displayed to the wondering crowd of the capital, as the prisoners taken by his victorious arms.

9. In this condition of the empire, the Sarmatians, aided by several Asiatic tribes, made a formidable irruption into the Roman territories, and cut off one of the legions with its general. The Dacians, under the guidance of their king, Decebalus, were even more successful, and defeated the Romans in several battles.

10. The energies of the state were at length roused, and the barbarians driven back to their forests and deserts. Domitian, elated with this result, again made a triumphal entry into Rome, and assumed the name of Germanicus, pretending to be the conqueror of a people whom he never met in the field.

11. Satiated at length with this cheap sort of military renown, he began to practise cruelty for his amusement. He persecuted the Jews and Christians with unrelenting severity; and his avarice led him to seize the estate of every person against whom he could fabricate the most trivial charge.

12. A conspiracy was soon formed against him by his wife Domitia, whom he had designed to put to death. He was assassinated.

was his conduct afterwards? 4. What anecdote is related of him? 5. What was done by Agricola? How was he treated by Domitian? 7. What of the Gallic expedition of Domitian? 8. Of his triumph? 9. Of the Sarmatians and Dacians? 10. Of Domitian's second triumph? 11. Of his persecutions? 12. What was the end of Domitian?

after considerable resistance, by Stephanus, the comptroller of his household, who was himself slain on the spot, by some of the officers of the guard. Domitian was the last of the Cæsars, leaving no heir to the throne.

CHAPTER CLII.

Reign of Nerva.

1. THE senate, dreading the influence of the army, appointed Cocceius Nerva the successor of Domitian, on the day of his assassination, A. D. 97. This emperor was born in Spain, of an illustrious Roman family; he was sixty-five years old when he was called to govern the empire.

2. Having been chosen by the senate solely from their experience of his talents and virtues, no doubt was entertained that he would do honor to the imperial purple. The horrors of the preceding reign induced Nerva to rule with an opposite excess of clemency and indulgence.

3. When he accepted his dignity, he took an oath that no Roman senator should be put to death during his reign. He was liberal in his gifts to his friends, and he sold all his gold and silver plate to enable him to continue his generousities. He abolished the oppressive taxes which had been imposed by his predecessors, and restored the property seized by Domitian.

4. Besides making many good laws, he united, more than any other sovereign, a system of retrenchment and economy with well-judged acts of liberality. He allowed no statues to be erected to himself, sold all those which had been raised to Domitian, and converted into money the gaudy robes and luxurious furniture of the palace.

5. Notwithstanding the benevolence and mildness which characterized the administration of Nerva, he soon began to experience that malignity which vice never fails to display against virtue. A conspiracy was formed for his assassination; this was happily detected, and the senate were desirous to deal rigorously with the authors, but Nerva contented himself by punishing them with exile.

6. This act of clemency encouraged another plot, among the prætorian bands, who pretended a wish to revenge the death of Domitian. Nerva used all the gentle means in his power to quell this mutiny. He even presented himself to the insurgents, bared his breast, and desired them to take his life rather than involve their country in fresh calamities.

7. But this act of self-devotion failed to subdue the ferocity of the mutineers. They killed two of the emperor's attendants before his face, and compelled him to approve of their sedition. Fortunately, their insolence went no further, and this insurrection ultimately turned out most favorably for the empire.

CLII. — 1. Who succeeded Domitian? 2, 3. What was the character of Nerva? 4. His administration? 5. What of a conspiracy? 6, 7. What was the consequence of

8. Nerva saw the necessity of providing a colleague, who might afford him assistance and counsel in the government of the empire. Having no private objects in view, he set aside all his own relations and fixed his choice upon Trajan, who then held an office in Germany.

9. Before the latter could reach the city, Nerva died of a fever, which was said to have been brought on by a violent passion, in a dispute with one of the senators, A. D. 98.

CHAPTER CLIII.

Reign of Trajan.



Trajan

1. TRAJAN was born at Seville, in Spain, though of an Italian family. His father had been raised to the rank of a patrician, by Vespasian, and after various successful expeditions on the Euphrates and the Rhine, in which his son accompanied him, he had been honored with the consulship and a triumph.

his clemency? 8. Whom did Nerva associate with him in the empire? 9. How did Nerva die?

2 In this way, Trajan acquired, in early life, a considerable reputation in arms. When the command of the army in Lower Germany was confided to him, he lived in the most unassuming and simple style. He performed long marches on foot with his troops, and shared with them all the dangers and fatigues of war.

3. He knew all the old soldiers by their names, and conversed with them in the most familiar manner. Before he retired to rest, he inspected the camp personally, and satisfied himself of the vigilance of the sentinels, and the security of the army.

4. To these qualities of a soldier, Trajan added the most amiable modesty and mildness of disposition, and he united in his character all those moral and intellectual qualifications, and all that experience in war and personal bravery, which seem rather to belong to many individuals than to be combined in one.

5. His personal appearance corresponded with his noble mind ; and when he entered Rome in the vigor of manhood, he inspired his subjects with a respect and admiration which they never afterwards ceased to attach to his name.

6. Trajan had no sooner ascended the throne than he was called upon to check the insolence of the Dacians, who had ravaged the empire during the reign of Domitian, and now claimed from the Roman people a tribute, which the cowardice of that emperor had induced him to offer.

7. At the head of a powerful army, Trajan marched towards Dacia, and overawed the barbarians by his sudden appearance upon their frontier. A treaty was made with them, but speedily broken by their king, Decebalus. Trajan threw a bridge across the Danube, entered Dacia, and brought him to a general action. The Dacians were completely routed, and their king, in despair, killed himself.

8. In this battle, which reduced Dacia to a Roman province, the slaughter was so great that all the linen in the Roman camp was not sufficient to dress the wounds of the soldiers. On the return of Trajan to Rome, a splendid triumph was celebrated, and the rejoicings continued a hundred and twenty days.

9. The duties of peace now demanded the attention of Trajan ; he established many public works ; he settled colonies in remote parts of the empire ; he opened communications between different provinces, and he laid up stores of corn and provisions to secure the capital from famine.

10. To commemorate his victories, he employed the architect Apollodorus to erect a magnificent column in Rome, covered with sculptures, representing the events of the Dacian war ; this structure still remains, and is one of the most remarkable objects of the city.

11. During the reign of Trajan, the Christians began to attract notice in Bithynia. As their doctrines were little known, it is probable that they were misrepresented. Trajan's regard for the established religion of Rome caused him to enforce the laws which had

CLIII. — 1. 2. What is said of the early life of Trajan? 3, 4, 5. What of his character? 6, 7, 8. Describe his campaign against the Dacians. 9. What of Trajan's administration of peace? 10. Of his triumphal column? 11. Of his behavior toward the Christians?

been enacted against those who dissented from it. On this account, the mild and beneficent Trajan is numbered among the persecutors of Christianity.

CHAPTER CLIV.

Eastern Campaigns of Trajan.

1. THE Armenians and Parthians having about this time thrown off the Roman yoke, Trajan marched into Armenia, subdued the country, and made the king prisoner. He then entered the Parthian territories, where he obtained the most signal success. After conquering Syria and Chaldea, he made his triumphal entry into Babylon.

2. The Parthians made a stand on the Euphrates, but Trajan, having caused a large number of boats or rafts to be constructed among the mountains during a single night, brought them suddenly to the river, and transported his army across the stream in the face of the enemy.

3. Quitting the Euphrates, he traversed countries which had never before been trodden by the foot of a Roman soldier; and he seems to have taken a peculiar delight in following that line of march which Alexander had pursued before him. He crossed the rapid stream of Tigris, and took the city of Ctesiphon.

4. After subjugating the districts of Persia bordering on that river, he marched south towards the Persian Gulf. The inclemency of the weather, and the inundations of the river, nearly destroyed his whole army, and Trajan, suffering from the infirmities of age, was compelled to return.

5. Persia had revolted during his absence, but he restored the Roman supremacy, and placed a king of his own choosing on the throne of that country. Having met with a repulse before the city of Atra, in Arabia, Trajan concluded that the time had now arrived for limiting his conquests and placing them under proper government.

6. He established a king over Albania, near the Caspian Sea, and placed governors and lieutenants in the other provinces. He now set his face towards Rome, leaving his forces in the east, under the command of Adrian. The most magnificent preparations were made for the reception of the emperor in his capital, but Trajan was destined never again to behold that city.

7. Exhausted with the fatigues of war, he was taken ill in Cilicia, and finding himself unable to travel any further, he was carried to the city of Selinus, where he died, A. D. 117, in the sixty-fourth year of his age, and the twentieth of his reign. His ashes were carried to Rome, and deposited at the foot of the column which bears his name.

CLIV. — 1—4. What campaigns did Trajan undertake in the east, and with what success? 5, 6. What of Persia, Arabia, and Albania? 7. Where did Trajan die?

CHAPTER CLV.

Adrian — Antoninus Pius.

1. **TRAJAN** was succeeded in the empire by Adrian, who, like his predecessor, was a native of Seville, but of a Spanish family. He was quite satisfied with preserving the ancient limits of the empire, and seemed no way ambitious of making conquests. For this reason, he abandoned all the acquisitions which had been made by Trajan, judging them rather a detriment than an advantage to the empire.

2. Adrian was the first Roman emperor that made a regular tour through the provinces. He spent many years in travelling over Gaul, Germany, Britain, Spain, Greece, and all the countries of Africa and Asia that were under his dominion. There was scarcely any part of his vast empire that he did not embellish with noble buildings and other great works of art.

3. In Britain he greatly improved the city of York, which was then the capital of the island, and the residence of the Roman governor. For the better security of this province, he built a wall of wood and earth, extending from the river Eden, in Cumberland, to the Tyne, in Northumberland. This served as a barrier against the incursions of the Picts, and other barbarous tribes of North Britain.



Incursions of the Scots and Picts into Britain.

4. On his return to Rome, the senate decreed him a triumph, which he had the modesty to decline. The virtues of Adrian, how-

CLV. — 1. Who succeeded Trajan? What was the policy of Adrian? 2. Of his tour through the provinces? 3. Of York, and Adrian's wall? 4. Of his persecutions?

even, were not unalloyed ; he was a cruel persecutor both of the Jews and the Christians ; he allowed himself to be influenced by unworthy favorites, and gave his ear to slanderers and informers.

5. During his reign the Jews again rebelled, and were subdued with dreadful slaughter. Adrian died of a lingering disease, at Baïæ, near Naples, A. D. 139.

6. He was succeeded by Titus Antoninus, whom he had adopted during his lifetime. This emperor divided the cares of government with Marcus Aurelius, his son-in-law. His mild and merciful reign procured for him the surname of Pius, and was undoubtedly the most tranquil and happy which the Roman empire ever enjoyed.

7. He suspended the persecutions against the Christians, and ordered their accusers to be punished as calumniators. Peace prevailed throughout the wide dominions of Rome ; the virtues of the sovereign conciliated the good-will of foreign nations, and he was chosen as the arbitrator of their differences.

8. For the first time, the government of the provinces engaged the earnest attention of the sovereign, and the lieutenants of the emperor, perceiving that their conduct was closely watched, ceased to oppress those intrusted to their charge.

9. The provincial inhabitants now, instead of seeing their revenues wasted to maintain a profligate court, or pamper a degraded populace, were gratified with the sight of public schools erected for the instruction of youth, of harbors cleaned out and repaired, of new marts of trade opened, &c.

10. After a beneficent and tranquil reign of twenty-two years, the prosperity of which is best proved by its affording no materials for history, Antoninus Pius died of a fever at one of his villas, bequeathing nothing but his own private fortune to his family.

11. The Romans venerated so highly the memory of this excellent monarch, that during the greater part of the ensuing century every sovereign deemed it essential to his popularity to assume the surname of Antoninus.

CHAPTER CLVI.

Reign of Marcus Aurelius.

1. MARCUS AURELIUS, surnamed the Philosopher, on account of his attachment to the doctrines of the Stoics, succeeded to the empire A. D. 163 ; but his power was shared by Lucius Verus, to whom he gave his daughter in marriage. He took, however, an early opportunity of sending his unworthy colleague from Rome with the command of an army against the Parthians.

2. Verus established his residence at Antioch, where he abandoned

5 What of the Jews ? 6. Who succeeded Adrian ? Who was the associate of Antoninus ? 7, 8, 9. What was the administration of Antoninus ? 10, 11. What of his death ?

CLVI. — 1. Who succeeded Antoninus ? What of his colleague ? 2. What was the

himself to every species of debauchery, while his lieutenants conquered some of the Parthian cities. Rome, in the mean time, enjoyed tranquillity and happiness under the firm but merciful administration of Aurelius.



Marcus Aurelius.

3. But this prosperity was interrupted by the return of Verus, who claimed a triumph for the victories gained by his officers. The eastern army brought the plague with it from Asia, and the infection was communicated to every province through which the legions passed. The violence of the pestilence did not abate for several years.

4. A dangerous war next broke out on the German frontiers, with the Marcomanni. Both emperors took the field, but in the opening of the campaign Verus died, the victim of his intemperate habits.

5. In the first engagement with the barbarians, the Romans were routed with great slaughter, and the emperor was obliged to sell the plate and furniture of his palace, and the imperial jewels, to raise a sufficient sum to repair the loss. In his subsequent campaigns, Aurelius ventured across the Danube, into the territory of the Quadi.

6. This temerity had nearly proved his ruin. The barbarians

conduct of Verus? 3. What of the plague? 4. What war next broke out? 5. What disaster happened to the Romans? 6. What accident relieved them in a dangerous

craftily pretending a flight, drew the Romans into a barren defile, where they were on the point of perishing by thirst. In this distress they were relieved by a thunder-storm; the rain relieved their wants, and the lightning struck the tents of their enemies.

7. The barbarians, believing this occurrence miraculous, immediately submitted. This was the origin of the story of the "Thundering Legion," one of the many monkish fictions of the age that followed, in which it was pretended that the shower was sent in answer to the prayers of the Christian soldiers in the Roman army.

8. Aurelius died of a fever, at Vienna, A. D. 180. The glory of the empire may be said to have expired with him. He was the last emperor who made the good of his subjects the chief object of his government, and he was one of the few princes who attained a respectable rank in literature. His "Meditations," which have come down to our time, contain a summary of the best rules for a virtuous life that have ever been devised by unassisted reason or simple philosophy.

CHAPTER CLVII.

Reign of Commodus.



Commodus in a Lion's Skin.

1 MARCUS AURELIUS was succeeded by his son Commodus, a person of a weak and timid disposition by nature, and whose mind was corrupted by the vices of his attendants. As he advanced in

emergency? 7. What is the story of the Thundering Legion? 8. What is said of the death of Aurelius? His Meditations?

life, his behavior only changed for the worse; but the description of all his vices and cruelties would only disgust the reader.

2. He is said, on one occasion, to have cut a fat man in two, when walking in the street, in order to amuse himself by seeing his entrails fall on the ground. He possessed great skill in archery, and performed many wonderful exploits with the bow.

3. His strength was enormous, and from this cause he was ambitious of being called Hercules. Hence he adorned his shoulders with a lion's skin, and carried in his hand a knotted club. He ran an elephant through with his spear, and killed a hundred lions, one after another, each by a single blow.

4. He fought with the common gladiators in the amphitheatre, and came off conqueror seven hundred and thirty times; in consequence of this, he used to subscribe himself the "conqueror of a thousand gladiators." When the senate, at his request, granted him divine honors, he strewed on his head such a quantity of gold dust, that it glittered in the sunbeams as if encircled with a glory.

5. The military events of the reign of Commodus were a disgrace to the Roman name. After the death of his father, he concluded a peace with the Marcomanni and Quadi on very unfavorable terms, abandoning all the castles and fortresses which the Romans held in their country, except those within five miles of the Danube. Treaties equally discreditable to Rome were made with the other German tribes whom his father had subjugated; in some cases he purchased peace with large sums of money.

6. A conspiracy was at length formed against the life of Commodus by his sister Lucilla, who was aided by many of the most distinguished senators. The emperor was attacked in a dark passage, on his way to the amphitheatre; but the person who aimed the dagger at him, instead of striking him at once to the heart, raised the weapon and exclaimed, "*The senate sends you this.*"

7. This delay gave the guards time to rescue their master. The conspirators were seized and put to death. Lucilla was exiled to Caprese, where she soon after met with the same fate.

CHAPTER CLVIII.

Death of Commodus.

1. Not long after this, the empire was disturbed by a singular revolt. A common soldier, named Maternus, with several others who had deserted from their legions, formed a party, which was gradually increased by the banditti from different provinces. They ravaged Spain and Gaul, and took by storm several strong cities.

2. An army under Pescennius Niger was sent against them, but

CLVII.—1. Who succeeded Aurelius? 2. What of the cruelties of Commodus? 3. Of his strength? 4. His extravagant behavior? 5. His wars? 6, 7. What of the conspiracy against him?

Maternus, finding himself unable to cope with a disciplined host, divided his followers into small bands, and marched them secretly to Rome by different routes. His object was to murder the emperor at an annual festival, and to seize upon the supreme authority.

3. All the different bands arrived undiscovered in the capital, and some of them had already insinuated themselves among the guards of the palace. But the plot was revealed by the treachery of one of the conspirators, and Maternus was seized and executed.

4. A plague next broke out in Rome, and continued two years, carrying off, at times, two thousand persons in a day. The city was also set on fire by lightning, and a considerable part of it burnt. This calamity was followed by a famine, which was believed by some to have been caused by Cleander, the emperor's prime minister, who bought up the corn on speculation.

5. The mob flocked to the palace, and demanded his head. Cleander ordered the Prætorian Guards to attack the crowd, many of whom they slaughtered; but the city guards, taking the popular side, the Prætorians were put to flight. Commodus, hearing of the uproar, ordered the head of Cleander to be thrown to the populace, which quieted the rebellion. The government of Rome at this period seems to have been not unlike that of the Turkish empire in modern times.

6. A conspiracy was now planned in the emperor's household, to take his life by poison, which was administered to him by one of his female favorites. But as the poison did not take effect speedily, a public wrestler of uncommon strength was employed to finish the work, and Commodus was strangled, A. D. 192. On the news of his death, the senate declared him an enemy to the public, ordered his body to be cast into the Tiber, and his statues to be demolished.

CHAPTER CLIX.

Commerce of the Romans with the East.

1. If the reign of Augustus be justly celebrated for the perfection of Roman literature, those of the Antonines, including even that of the wicked Commodus, deserve to be honored for the great improvements made in trade and commerce, especially by the opening of new communications with India.

2. Tadmor, or Palmyra, the wondrous city of the desert, distant only eighty-five miles from the Euphrates, and about one hundred and seventeen from the nearest coast of the Mediterranean, was the centre of the trade between Europe and southern Persia, including the countries bordering on the Indus, and the districts now attached to the Bombay presidency.

CLVIII. — 1. What of Maternus? 2, 3. What was the result of his undertaking? 4. What calamities followed? 5. What of Cleander? 6. How did Commodus die?

CLIX. — 1. What of the age of the Antonines in respect to commerce? 2. Of

3. In consequence of the great exports that this trade naturally caused from the harbors of the Levant, considerable numbers of Syrian merchants settled in Rome, some of whom attained the highest honors of the state. It appears that some merchants used a more northern route by the Caspian and Oxus; for we find the Roman geographers tolerably well acquainted with the countries that now form the kingdoms of Khiva and Bokhara.

4. The great caravan route across Asia, however, commenced at Byzantium, now Constantinople, which was long the seat of flourishing commerce before it became the metropolis of an empire. Having passed the Bosphorus, the merchant adventurers proceeded through Anatolia, and crossed the Euphrates; thence they proceeded to Ecbatana, the ancient capital of the Medes, and Hecatompylos, the metropolis of the Parthians. Thence circuitously to Hyrcania and Aria. Finally, they came to Bactra, long the principal mart of central Asia.

5. From Bactra there were two caravan routes, one to north India, over the western part of the Himalaya, called the Indian Caucasus, the other toward the frontiers of Serica, over the lofty mountain-chain of Imaus, through a winding ravine which was marked by a celebrated station called the Stone Tower, whose ruins are said still to exist, under the name of *Chihel Sutun*, or the Forty Columns. Little was known of the countries between the Imaus and Serica, which were probably traversed by Bactrian, rather than European merchants; but the road was described as wonderfully difficult and tedious.

6. As the progress of the caravans was liable to frequent interruptions from the Parthians, and the conveyance of manufactured silks through the deserts was very toilsome, the emperor Antoninus attempted to open a communication with the Chinese by sea. Of this singular transaction, no record has yet been found in any of the Greek or Latin authors.

7. M. de Guignes, however, has found it stated, in a very old Chinese historical work, that an embassy had come by sea from Antun, the king of the people of the western ocean, to Yanti, or rather Hanhuanti, who ruled over China in the hundred and sixty-sixth year of the Christian era. The name and date sufficiently identify Antun with Antoninus, and the projected intercourse was well worthy the attention of that enlightened emperor; but nothing is known respecting the results of this embassy.

Palmyra? 3. The Syrian merchants? 4. How did the caravan for Asia proceed? 5. What of India and China? 6. The Parthians? 7. The expedition of the Romans to China?

CHAPTER CLX.

Commerce of the Romans with the South and North.

1. THE navigation to India was long confined to circuitous voyages round the peninsula of Arabia and the coasts of the Persian Gulf; but about a century after the establishment of the Roman dominion, Harpalus, the commander of a ship long engaged in the Indian trade, observing the regular changes of the periodical winds, ventured to steer from the straits of Bab-el-Mandel across the Erythræan Sea, (Indian Ocean,) and was wafted by the western monsoon to the Malabar coast. This great improvement was deservedly regarded as of the highest importance; and the western monsoon received the name of Harpalus, in memory of the courageous navigator who had turned it to such a good account.

2. The route of the Egyptian trade under the Romans has been described with considerable accuracy by Pliny. Cargoes destined for India were carried up the Nile in boats to Coptos, thence they were transferred by caravans to Myos Hormus, or Berenice. The latter though the longer, was the more frequented road, because the Ptolemies had prepared excellent stations and watering-places at convenient distances along the road.

3. From Berenice the fleet sailed, in June or July, for Ocelis, at the mouth of the Arabian Gulf, and Cane, a promontory and emporium on the south-east coast of Arabia Felix. Thence they steered across the ocean for the Malabar coast, and usually made the passage in forty days. They began their voyage homeward early in December, and generally encountered more difficulty on their return, on account of the unsteadiness of the winds.

4. The chief imports from India were spices, precious stones, and muslins. There is a singular confusion in the Latin authors between the finer cotton goods and manufactured silks, which has led to their mixing up the Chinese and Indian trade together. The principal exports were light woollens, chequered linens, glass, wine, and bullion.

5. Commodus, with a wisdom which could scarcely have been expected from him, made some efforts to open the old Carthaginian trade with the interior of Africa; but the result of his labors is unknown. He also paid some attention to the corn-trade, so essential to the prosperity of his central dominions, when Italy had long ceased to produce sufficient grain for the support of its inhabitants; and he established a company to procure corn from northern Africa whenever the crops failed in Egypt.

6. The trade of the Black Sea, so flourishing in the age of the

CLX.—1. How was the early navigation to India? Who discovered the monsoons? 2. 3. What was the route of the Egyptian trade to the Malabar coast? 4. What were the imports and exports? 5. Of trade under Commodus? 6. Of the Black Sea? 7. The amber trade? 8. Fur and tin trade?

Greek republics, appears to have been greatly diminished after the Romans became masters of the countries on both sides of the *Ægean*; and it seems probable that little or no commerce passed through the Straits of Gibraltar into the Atlantic Ocean.

7. In consequence of this change, the amber trade was transferred from the coasts of the northern sea to the banks of the Danube, and the barbarous tribes who brought it from the shores of the Baltic are said to have been astonished at the prices they received for what seemed to them so useless a commodity.

8. Furs were purchased from the Scythian tribes; but this branch of trade appears never to have been of any great amount. The British tin trade was rather neglected by the Romans; indeed, it appears to have been monopolized by the Gauls, and consequently was confined to the British Channel. From this slight sketch, it will be seen that the Romans were not naturally a mercantile people.

CHAPTER CLXI.

Reign of Pertinax.

1. PERTINAX was placed on the vacant throne. He was a person who had passed through so many adventures as to gain the appellation of "Fortune's tennis-ball." Descended from an obscure family, either a slave or the son of a slave, he followed for some time the trade of a charcoal-burner. He then became a petty shopkeeper in Rome, then a schoolmaster in Etruria, where he taught Latin and Greek.

2. Next he became a lawyer, and next a soldier, in which capacity he distinguished himself by his courage, and was made a captain of a cohort in the Parthian war. After passing through the usual gradations of preferment in Britain and Mœsia, he obtained the command of a legion under Aurelius.

3. This emperor caused him to be made consul, for his eminent services. He was next intrusted with the government of Mœsia, and at length made governor of Rome. Under Commodus he was sent into exile, but soon recalled to reform the abuses of the army.

4. During a mutiny which took place among the legions, he was set for dead in a heap of the slain; but having recovered, he punished the mutineers, and restored discipline in the ranks.

5. He was then sent to Africa, where another sedition had nearly proved fatal to him, and being now fatigued with this long series of labors and dangers, he returned and lived in quiet retirement at Rome. He was, however, again called forth by Commodus, who made him prefect of the city.

6. Pertinax held this office when he was roused from his sleep at night by Lætus, the captain of the emperor's guard. Not doubting

that an order for his death had been issued by the tyrant, Pertinax made himself ready for the executioner ; but instead of this, he was greeted with the announcement that he was emperor of Rome.

7. At first he was unwilling to accept such a trust, and urged the pleas of his old age and increasing infirmities. But his scruples were disregarded : he was immediately escorted to the camp, and proclaimed emperor. The hopes which had been formed respecting him were not disappointed.

8. Pertinax, by strict discipline and wise regulations, restrained the licentiousness of the prætorian bands, and protected the citizens against the overbearing insolence with which this arrogant soldiery had long treated them. He attended all the meetings of the senate, and paid such devotion to business, that the meanest petitioner could always obtain access to him.

9. Pertinax melted down all the silver statues which had been erected to Commodus. He put to sale all his buffoons, jesters, and horses, which produced so large a sum of money that he was able to abolish many oppressive taxes on the industry of the people.

10. His strictness in reforming the prætorian bands excited against him the hatred of these insolent soldiers, and they resolved to depose him. Assembling in the streets, they directed their march to the palace. The attendants of the emperor took to flight, but Pertinax boldly faced the insurgents, and advancing into the midst of them, asked if they had come to betray their master and shed his blood.

11. Confounded with this act of personal heroism, the rebels shrunk back and showed a disposition to retreat, when a barbarian of Tongres struck him in the breast with a lance, exclaiming, "The soldiers send you this!" Pertinax, muffling his head in his robe, and calling upon Jupiter to avenge his death, fell and expired under a multitude of wounds, A. D. 193.

CHAPTER CLXII.

Didius Julianus.

1. ROME WAS now placed in the most deplorable condition ; her unprincipled citizens had shown their submission to any usurper, however detestable and cruel, provided he administered to their dissolute pleasures. Such was the depth of vice in which they were plunged, that a good man seemed unfit as well as unable to rule over them.

2. But a scene of degradation hitherto unparalleled was now to be exhibited. The empire was put up for sale to the highest bidder, by

Pertinax? 6, 7. How was he called to the empire? 8, 9. How did he reign? 10 How did he offend the soldiery? 11. How did he die?

CLXII -- 1. What was done on the death of Pertinax? 2. Who became emperor?

the Prætorian Guards. A senator of immense wealth, named Didius Julianus, bid it off for a sum equal to ten millions of dollars.

3. The soldiers who received and shared the money obtained by this infamous transaction, proclaimed him emperor, and escorted him through the streets of Rome amid the hisses of the people. The obedient senate, however, sanctioned his elevation. Didius, having acquired his dignity by purchase, resolved to use it for his pleasure.

4. He gave himself no concern about public affairs, but passed his time in feasting and entertainments. He soon became the object of general contempt, and was loaded with curses whenever he went abroad. The people cried out, in his hearing, that he was a thief and had stolen the empire.

5. The stupid Didius, insensible to shame, bore all these insults unmoved. He bowed and smiled to those who heaped affronts upon him, and submitted without a murmur to the whims and caprices of the populace.

6. But amidst this degradation of the national character, a portion of the ancient Roman spirit yet lingered in the provinces. Two generals, Septimius Severus, in Germany, and Pescennius Niger, in Syria, resolved to vindicate the majesty of Rome.

7. Niger was immediately proclaimed emperor by his army, and the kings and princes of Asia sent ambassadors to acknowledge his title. Content with this empty homage, he made no efforts to secure the empire, but devoted himself to a luxurious life at Antioch.

8. Severus proceeded with more caution and foresight. He took as his partner, Albinus, who commanded in Britain, and made himself master of all the strong places in Germany. He then marched for Italy, at the head of a well appointed army.

9. Didius prevailed upon the senate to declare Severus a traitor; but he was unable to raise an army, and perplexed with opposing counsels, he waited the approach of his rival. On the advance of Severus towards Rome, Didius, with the consent of the senate, despatched ambassadors, offering to divide the government with him. This offer was rejected, and the senate, finding the cause of Didius hopeless, deposed him from his authority, and declared Severus emperor.

10. The wretched usurper, who had purchased, by an enormous sum of money, a comfortless and disgraceful reign of three months, was dragged from his throne with ignominy, and his head was struck off by the common executioner.

11. Severus, before he entered Rome, ordered the Prætorian Guards, who had sold the empire, to be brought unarmed into his presence. He reproached them for their crimes, ordered them to be stripped of their military equipments, deprived of the title and rank of soldiers, and banished to the distance of one hundred miles from Rome. The new emperor then made his entrance into the city.

3, 4, 5. How was Didius treated by the people? 6. Who opposed his authority? 7. What of Niger? 8. Severus? 9. How did Didius behave? 10. What became of him? 11. How did Severus treat the Prætorian Guards? 12. What became of Niger?

The streets were strewed with flowers, and the senate received him with the most distinguished honors.

12. In the mean time, his rival, Niger, was reigning in the east under the title of Augustus, and Severus found it necessary to take the field against him. Many battles were fought, but at length Niger was totally defeated in the plains of the Issus, where he lost both his empire and his life.

CHAPTER CLXIII.

Reigns of Septimius Severus and Caracalla.

1. THE next object of Severus was to rid himself of Albinus, his partner. Under the guise of messengers carrying despatches, he sent assassins into Britain to take his life. But Albinus, obtaining knowledge of this, proclaimed himself emperor. A war was carried on in Gaul, and Severus was at one period in the most desperate circumstances.

2. But at length he totally defeated the troops of Albinus at Lyons, took him prisoner, and put him to death. Severus used his victory with great cruelty. In order to establish himself firmly in power, he distributed rewards and honors most profusely among his troops. He then undertook an expedition against the Parthians, which he successfully accomplished.

3. From Parthia he advanced to the south, and thence proceeded to Egypt, where he studied, with an inquiring eye, the various monuments and ruins which even at that time rendered the banks of the Nile interesting.

4. As the Roman arms had experienced some checks in Britain, Severus resolved to regain the territory which had been lost. He appointed his sons, Caracalla and Geta, his successors in the empire, and taking them in his company, landed in the island, A. D. 206. He left Geta in the south, and marched with Caracalla against the Caledonians in the north.

5. Pursuing the inhabitants through their woods and marshes, he lost fifty thousand men in this toilsome expedition; but the Caledonians were so harassed that they sued for peace, and surrendered a considerable portion of their territory.

6. To secure his conquests, Severus built a wall extending across the island from the Solway Firth to the mouth of the river Tyne, a distance of sixty-eight miles. This wall was built of freestone, twelve feet high and eight feet thick, with a ditch on the north side, and many fortresses along its extent. By this barrier, the Caledonians were prevented from making irruptions into the Roman territories.

7. Severus having retired to York, Caracalla made an attempt

CLXIII. — 1, 2 How did Severus conduct toward Albinus? 3. What were his next movements? 4. What successors did he appoint? 5. What of the Caledonians?

here to murder his father. The old man was so shocked at the brutality of his son, that he called him into his presence, and offering him a naked sword, said, "If you are ambitious of reigning alone, in.sure your hands now in your father's blood, and let not the world witness your want of filial tenderness."

8. Caracalla was not greatly abashed by this reproof. He prevailed upon the soldiers to revolt, and proclaim him emperor. When Severus, who had now lost the use of his feet, heard of this, he ordered his attendants to place him in his litter; he then summoned Caracalla, the tribunes and centurions, into his presence.

9. Confounded with the energy and boldness of the emperor, they implored his pardon on their knees. Severus replied, "It is the head that governs, and not the feet." Finding his disorder gaining upon him, he called for poison, but it was refused. He then swallowed an enormous quantity of food to hasten his end, which had the desired effect, and he died in the eighteenth year of his reign, A. D. 210.

10. Caracalla and Geta were proclaimed joint emperors by the army, and immediately exhibited the most violent hatred towards each other. Soon after the return of the former to Rome, he murdered his brother in his mother's arms. To prevent the consequences of this atrocious act, he gained the support of the prætorian soldiers by large gifts of money, and then, with strange inconsistency, prevailed upon the senate to rank his brother in the number of the gods.

11. His sole dependence being upon the army, he used the most iniquitous means to procure money for purchasing their venal support. The richest men of Rome were put to death under false accusations of treason, and their estates confiscated. To lower the pride of the Romans, he granted the name and privileges of citizenship to all the subjects of the empire.

12. At length, after a series of tyrannical and disgraceful acts, he was assassinated near Edessa, by Martial, a centurion, who had been engaged for this purpose by Macrinus, the prætorian prefect, A. D. 217. The latter was at first unsuspected of any participation in the deed, but Martial was seized and cut to pieces by the soldiery.

CHAPTER CLXIV.

Macrinus and Heliogabalus.

1. MACRINUS was declared emperor by the army, and this choice was confirmed by the senate. He was a native of Mauritania, but was very popular with the Romans in the beginning of his reign. This, however, was not of long continuance. His cowardice in

6. Of the wall of Severus? 7. 8. How did Caracalla behave? 9. How did Severus die? 10. Who succeeded him? 11. Of the cruelty of Caracalla? 12. What was his end?

purclasing a peace from the Persians by a large sum of money, and his constnat affectation of imitating the virtuous Aurelius, irritated the people, and brought him into contempt.

2. In his efforts to restrain the licentiousness of the soldiers, he was compelled to adopt some severe rules of discipline, which led to a mutiny. Mœsa, the grandmother of Heliogabalus, who was an illegitimate son of Caracalla, took advantage of this rebellious spirit, and by distributing liberal presents among the soldiers, she recommended Heliogabalus to their notice.

3. Macrinus was leading a life of pleasure at Antioch, when the troops at Rome proclaimed Heliogabalus emperor. This individual was but fourteen years of age; and was a priest in the temple of the sun, in Phœnicia. His only recommendation for the imperial purple was his relationship to Caracalla and the beauty of his person.

4. Macrinus, on hearing of the revolution at Rome, despatched his lieutenant, Julian, with some legions into Italy; but these troops slew their general, and declared for the new emperor. Macrinus now took the field in person, but being detained by an illness at Chalcedon, he was surprised and put to death by his enemies, A. D. 218.

5. The accession of Heliogabalus to the empire was ratified by the senate and people. Surrounded by flatterers, who found it for their interest to gratify all his wishes, he was soon initiated into all the profligacy of the times, and he is described by the Roman historians as a monster of sensuality and vice.

6. He appointed his mother and grandmother his colleagues in the empire. He created a senate of women, the business of which was to arrange the fashions of dress which were to prevail in the empire. He raised his horse to the dignity of consul, and fed him with gilded oats.

7. He compelled the Romans to worship the god whose name he bore, and which was nothing but a black stone. To this deity temples were raised, and the shrines of the gods were plundered to deck that of the new divinity.

8. His prodigality was such that he regarded nothing as worth eating that was bought at a moderate price. His suppers cost sometimes sixty thousand dollars each. He dressed himself in gold and purple, and never wore the same dress twice.

9. His apartments were furnished with the richest stuffs, covered with gold and jewels. His mats consisted of the down of hares, or the soft feathers from beneath the wings of partridges. His carpets were made of gold and silver tissue, and his shoes were covered with precious stones, to attract the admiration of the populace.

10. The mother of the emperor, annoyed by these extravagances, conceived the design of checking them by giving him a colleague in the empire. Alexander Severus was proposed for this office, and accepted. But Heliogabalus soon found this restraint upon his vices uncomfortable, and wished to recall what he had done.

CLXIII. — 1. Who succeeded Caracalla? 2, 3. What of Heliogabalus? 4. What became of Macrinus? 5. What was the character of Heliogabalus? 6—9. Of his

11. The good qualities of Alexander, however, had gained him many friends, and when Heliogabalus attempted to expel him from his office, a riot ensued, and the latter would have been killed as he was walking in his garden, had he not saved himself by flight.

12. The seditious spirit, once excited, was not to be quelled. The soldiers insisted upon guarding Alexander, and prohibiting any of the other emperor's favorites from contaminating him with their society. Heliogabalus was now seriously alarmed, and finding his cause desperate, made preparations for death suitable to his general habits.

13. He erected a tower with steps of gold and mother-of-pearl, from which he might, in the last extremity, cast himself headlong. He kept about his person cords of purple, silk and gold, for the purpose of strangling himself. He provided golden swords and daggers, and had boxes of emerald furnished with a variety of poisons.

14. In this state of mind, he meditated schemes for taking the life of his rival by poison and otherwise, but these all failed of effect. His soldiers at length mutinied, and pursued him through the rooms of his palace. They dragged him from an obscure corner, put him to death, and threw his body into the Tiber. His mother and many other partners of his crimes shared the same fate.

CHAPTER CLXV.

Alexander Severus.—Maximin.

1. ALEXANDER SEVERUS was unanimously declared emperor by the senate, A. D. 222, and he was every way deserving of that high honor. One of his first acts was to reform the abuses of his predecessor. He used his utmost strength to check the immoralities of the people. Under his beneficent sway, the Christians, who had suffered much persecution in Rome, enjoyed full protection.

2. The personal accomplishments of this emperor are highly extolled by historians. He was not only a patron of literature, but he devoted his leisure hours to the study of the Greek and Latin authors. He was skilled in mathematics, geometry, music, painting and sculpture.

3. The Persians having disturbed the tranquillity of the empire, Alexander marched against them, and, if we may believe the annalists of that period, he routed an enormous army of that nation with great slaughter, capturing the cities of Ctesiphon and Babylon. On his return to Antioch, his mother, Mammæa, sent for the celebrated Origen, to give the emperor instructions respecting the doctrines of Christianity.

extravagant behavior? 10, 11. Of Alexander Severus? 12, 13, 14. What became of Heliogabalus?

CLXV.—1, 2. What of the character and acts of Alexander Severus? 3. Of the Per-

4. In the mean time the northern part of the empire was invaded by hordes of barbarians from Germany and the regions beyond, who crossed the Rhine and Danube in such swarms that they spread the alarm even to the gates of Rome.

5. Alexander took the field against them in person. He obtained various successes, but the strict discipline which he enforced in his army excited a mutiny among the German legions, which had been accustomed to every kind of indulgence under the preceding reign. Maximin, one of the generals, fomented this spirit of sedition, and at length the soldiers burst into the tent of the emperor and cut off his head.

6. Maximin was immediately proclaimed emperor, A. D. 235. His father was a shepherd of Thrace, and Maximin himself exercised the same humble profession. Having frequently headed his countrymen against the barbarians and robbers who infested the plains on which his flocks grazed, he had acquired a knowledge of irregular warfare, and was inflamed with a passion for military glory.

7. He therefore entered the Roman army, where he soon became as remarkable for his courage and discipline as he was for his strength and gigantic stature. He was nearly eight and a half feet in height, and his frame was equally strong and symmetrical. He was capable of drawing a load which a yoke of oxen could not move. He could break the thigh-bone of a horse by a kick, and strike out his teeth by a blow of his fist. He commonly ate forty pounds of meat every day, and drank six gallons of wine.

8. Maximin first displayed his strength at the public games, which Septimius Severus celebrated on the birth-day of his son Geta. The gigantic Thracian had requested permission to contend for the prize of wrestling, but Severus allowed him to engage only with slaves. In running, he outstripped sixteen persons, one after the other. He kept pace with the emperor on horseback, and after being thus fatigued, he overcame seven of the most active soldiers.

9. These feats of strength induced the emperor to take him into his body-guard. In the reign of Caracalla he was made a centurion, after which, he went through various vicissitudes of fortune, till Alexander Severus gave him the command of a legion in Germany.

CHAPTER CLXVI.

Cruelties and Death of Maximin.

1. THE base ingratitude which Maximin had exhibited toward the virtuous Alexander was followed by a system of tyranny and brutality which had scarcely been equalled even in the reigns of his most abandoned predecessors. The senate having refused to ratify his election, he determined to reign without their concurrence.

man war? 4. The barbarians? 5. What became of Severus? 6 Who succeeded him? 7, 8, 9. What was the character and history of Maximin?

2. He put to death every person whom he disliked, and resolved to force an unwilling obedience from all ranks in the state. He condemned rich men to the executioner, for the purpose of confiscating their estates. He persecuted the Christians, and with the true spirit of a mean upstart, put to death all who were acquainted with him in early life, and remembered the lowness of his extraction.

3. Whoever was suspected of plotting against him, was sacrificed without delay, and in this manner four hundred persons lost their lives. Some of these Maximin killed by beating; others he exposed to wild beasts; others were crucified, or sewed up in the carcasses of animals newly slain.

4. Maximin made war upon the Germans, defeated their armies, cut down their standing corn, and wasted their country to an extent of four hundred and fifty miles. The soldiers were strongly attached to him, on account of the increased pay which he allowed them on these expeditions. He also recommended himself to them by the zeal with which he shared in all the duties of a common soldier, being always found at the point of danger, and fighting as a private, while he commanded as a general.

5. But a spirit of sedition was aroused in the African provinces, where the cruelties and exactions of Maximin had made his name odious. Gordian, the proconsul of Africa, now in his eightieth year, and whose talents and virtues were well known in the empire, was proclaimed emperor, in conjunction with his son.

6. Finding it impossible to decline the office, which was forced upon him by the joint instances of the soldiery and the people, Gordian acquainted the senate with what had happened, assuring them of his reluctance to accept the important charge, and declaring that he would retain his authority no longer than till he had freed the empire from its oppressor.

CHAPTER CLXVII.

The Two Gordians.

1. THE senate and people of Rome confirmed the election of Gordian. They displaced the governors, declared Maximin a public enemy, and commanded the provinces to acknowledge Gordian. When this intelligence was brought to the tyrant, he was wrought up into a fury that nothing could control. He raved like a madman, and beat his head against the wall.

2. But growing a little cooler with reflection, he harangued his army, promised his soldiers to reward them with the estates of his enemies, and resolved to march to Rome and take his revenge by an indiscriminate slaughter. He accordingly made peace with the barbarians, and led his army towards Italy. On his march he received

CLXVI. — 1, 2, 3. What of the cruelties of Maximin? 4. His wars? 5. What took place in Africa? 6. How did Gordian behave?

CLXVII. — 1. How did the senate and people behave? 2. How did Maximin behave?

intelligence that Gordian and his son had been defeated and slain by Capelianus, one of Maximin's adherents in Africa.

3. This unexpected turn of affairs, while it raised the hopes of the tyrant, produced the most terrible consternation in Rome; but the senate, undaunted by the calamity, appointed Pupienus and Balbinus emperors. This choice did not satisfy the multitude; a vast crowd assembled while the new sovereigns were offering the usual sacrifice, and demanded, with loud clamors, a prince of the Gordian race.

4. After the senate had vainly attempted to quiet the mob, a youth of this family, only twelve years old, was proclaimed Cæsar. In the mean time, Maximin entered Italy, and laid siege to Aquileia; but this city was bravely defended by the citizens, who dreaded the cruelties of the tyrant. They threw scalding pitch and sulphur upon the soldiers who attempted to scale the walls. The old men and women fought upon the ramparts, and the females cut off their hair to furnish bow-strings for the defenders.

5. The tyrant, exasperated by this unexpected resistance, turned his rage upon his own men, and put several of them to death. A mutiny soon broke out in the army; and a large body of his men entered the tent of Maximin at noonday, and put him to death, with his son and his chief favorites, A. D. 238.

6. Tranquillity was restored by the death of Maximin; but the empire was soon involved in foreign wars. The Carpi and Goths, passing the Danube, ravaged the province of Mœsia; while the Persians renewed their hostilities on the eastern frontiers. Pupienus was preparing to march against the latter, when events of a serious nature at home claimed his attention.

7. Jealousies had arisen between the two emperors. Pupienus was universally allowed to surpass his colleague, both as a soldier and as a statesman. But as he was the son of a blacksmith, Balbinus looked upon him as his inferior. The petty dissensions which arose from this source, emboldened the Prætorian Guards to attempt a change in the government. They attacked the palace when the emperors were returning from the Capitoline Games, seized them both, and put them to death, A. D. 238. The young Gordian remained sole emperor.

CHAPTER CLXVIII.

Gordian. — Philip. — Decius.

1. MISITHEUS, the commander of the Prætorian Guards, acted as minister and guardian of young Gordian. He was well qualified for the office, uniting the valor of a soldier to the wisdom of a statesman. The successes of the Persians drew his attention to the scene of warfare in the east. On his march he encountered an army of Gauls in

What became of the Gordians? 3. What was done by the senate and people? 4. By Maximin? What of Aquileia? 5. What became of Maximin? 6. What followed his death? 7. What of Pupienus and Balbinus?

Mœna, who had endeavored to settle in Thrace, and after many conflicts he drove them back to their own territories. The Persians were defeated in every battle, and pursued to the gates of Ctesiphon.

2. But these victories were more than counterbalanced by the death of **Misitheus**, who died suddenly, and was supposed to have been poisoned by Philip, an Arabian, who succeeded him in the command of the prætorians. The good fortune of Gordian seems to have abandoned him with the loss of this able minister.

3. Philip took advantage of the public discontents, and contrived to have himself raised to an equal power with the emperor. Having attained to this elevation, he poisoned his colleague, and became sole emperor, A. D. 244.

4. The father of Philip had been captain of a band of robbers in Arabia, and had probably brought up his son to the same adventurous profession. Philip, on a visit to the scenes of his early life, founded a city in Arabia, which he named **Philippopolis**.

5. The thousandth year of Rome happened in his reign, and he celebrated the secular games with a magnificence corresponding to the occasion. The people were entertained with splendid shows, and two thousand gladiators fought in the amphitheatre for their amusement.



Gladiators.

6. The reign of Philip was disturbed by many insurrections, especially in Pannonia, the suppression of which he intrusted to Decius. Scarcely had this general reached Illyricum, when his soldiers compelled him, by the threat of instant death, to assume the imperial title. Philip, on hearing of this event, marched against Decius, but was defeated and slain near Verona, A. D. 249.

CLXVIII. — 1, 2. What of Misitheus? 3, 4. Of Philip? 5. What happened in his

7. Decius is said to have been secretly a Christian, but no evidence of this is apparent in his actions. He was acknowledged emperor by the senate and people; the surname of Trajan was bestowed upon him, from his resemblance in character to that virtuous emperor.

8. He permitted the office of censor to be revived, and Valerian, a man of the strictest morals, was intrusted with its duties. The emperor endeavored to watch over the interests of the inferior classes, while he guarded the dignity of the patrician orders.

9. But Rome had now reached such a state that no individual talent and no high example of virtue could suffice to arrest the progress of corruption, and prevent her downfall. The constant and bitter disputes which were carried on between the Christian and the Pagan inhabitants of the empire, created the most pernicious factions at home, while the growing insolence of the barbarian hordes of the north threatened the destruction of the empire from without.

10. Decius began his reign by one of the most sanguinary persecutions that ever oppressed the church. The Christians throughout the empire were driven from their habitations, dragged to execution like common malefactors, and subjected to the most exquisite tortures. Great numbers betook themselves to the mountains and deserts, choosing rather to live among wild beasts than with human beings mad with religious fanaticism.

CHAPTER CLXIX.

Gallus. — Æmilianus. — Valerian.

1. THE religious disputes of the empire were interrupted by an invasion of the Goths, who crossed the Danube and devastated Mæsia and Thrace. Decius marched to oppose them, and in a single engagement destroyed thirty thousand of these barbarians. But in following up his success he was led into an ambuscade by the treason of his own general, Gallus.

2. The Roman army, surprised in a narrow defile, was surrounded by the Goths, and the emperor, seeing his son fall by an arrow, and his troops routed, resolved to die on the field of battle. Spurring his horse toward the enemy, he plunged into a marsh, where he was instantly swallowed up and never seen more, A. D. 251.

3. The remnant of the army proclaimed Gallus emperor. He concluded a dishonorable peace with the Goths, and renewed the persecution against the Christians. His dastardly conduct provoked general indignation; the provincial armies revolted, and Æmilianus was proclaimed emperor in Mæsia. Gallus marched to oppose him, but was defeated and killed, A. D. 253.

reign? 6. What became of him? 7. What of Decius? 8. Of the censor? 9. What was the condition of Rome? 10. How did Decius treat the Christians?

CLXIX. — 1. What of the Goths? 2. How did Decius die? 3. Who succeeded him? 20*

4. Æmilianus expected to be acknowledged emperor; but the senate refused, and the army in Rhætia proclaimed Valerian. The prospect of a civil war induced the soldiers of Æmilianus to put their general to death, and Valerian was acknowledged by the senate and people.



Valerian.

5. This emperor was sixty-three years of age when he was raised to the purple. He possessed an unblemished character, and powers which might have revived the sinking fortunes of the empire. But the virtues and talents which had distinguished him in private life did not appear to great advantage after he came to the supreme power.

6. He made, however, some good attempts to reform the abuses of government, but he tarnished the character of his reign by persecuting the Christians. The incursions of the northern hordes called him into the field against the Goths and Scythians. He gained a victory over the latter; but the invasion of Syria by Sapor, king of Persia, compelled him to undertake a further expedition for the relief of that country.

7. Imprudently passing the Euphrates, he was surrounded by the Persian army near Edessa, in a situation where neither courage nor

4, 5. What of Valerian? 6. What campaigns did he undertake? 7, 8. What misfortune happened to Valerian? 9. What truth is in this story?

military skill could be of any avail. He was taken prisoner, and carried by Sapor in triumph to his capital.

8. The captive emperor was exposed to every brutal insult by his barbarous conqueror, who used his neck as a footstool whenever he mounted his horse. After he had languished in captivity for seven years, his eyes were put out, and he was flayed alive. His skin was tanned, painted red, and nailed up in one of the Persian temples as a national trophy.

9. Such is the common account of the captivity of this unfortunate emperor; but the particulars are not fully authenticated, and there is no doubt that the tale is to a considerable extent an invention.

CHAPTER CLXX.

Gallienus. — Claudius. — Quintillius.

1. GALLIENUS, the son of Valerian, succeeded to the throne, A. D. 260, receiving the news of his father's misfortune with secret pleasure and open indifference. He seemed to be acquainted with almost everything except the art of government; he was master of many curious but useless sciences; he was a ready orator, an excellent poet, a skilful gardener, a good cook, and a most contemptible prince.

2. At the moment of his accession, the barbarians, encouraged by the captivity of Valerian, invaded the empire on all sides. The Goths and Scythians ravaged Pontus, the Franks and Alemanni carried fire and sword into Rhætia, and advanced as far south as Ravenna, in Italy. The Sarmatians and the Quadi entered Dacia and Pannonia; other barbarous tribes burst into Spain, and took possession of many strongholds in that country.

3. Gallienus drove out the barbarians from Italy, and Regillianus defeated them in Dacia and Pannonia. But after these successes, the emperor sunk into complete inactivity, and his indolence aroused a host of competitors for the sovereignty in the different provinces, who were commonly called the "thirty tyrants," though their number did not exceed nineteen.

4. It would be useless to describe the struggles for power among these rivals, which distracted every part of the empire. The most remarkable of them was Odenatus, of Palmyra, who gained several victories over the Persians, and besieged Sapor, in Ctesiphon.

5. Gallienus resolved to convert a rival into a friend, and proclaimed Odenatus his partner in the empire. But the Palmyrenian chief was murdered by some of his own countrymen, and was succeeded by his widow, Zenobia, who took the title of Queen of the East.

CLXX.—1. Who succeeded Valerian? 2, 3. What of the wars of Gallienus? 4. Of the thirty tyrants? 5. Of Odenatus and Zenobia? 6. What became of Gallienus? 7. Of Claudius and Quintillius.

6. None of the other rivals of Gallienus had sufficient strength to resist his arms, and the emperor maintained the throne, while all his opponents fell by a violent death. Gallienus himself was assassinated A. D. 268, while he was besieging Milan.

7. Flavius Claudius succeeded Gallienus. He defeated the Germans and Goths with great slaughter. He then prepared to march against Zenobia, who had conquered Egypt, and assumed a sort of imperial authority; but a pestilence broke out in his army, and the emperor himself was one of its victims. His brother Quintillus was invested with the purple by the army, but he gave such dissatisfaction by attempting to revive the ancient military discipline, that he was deposed and murdered at the end of seventeen days.

CHAPTER CLXXI.

Aurelian. — Zenobia.

1. AURELIAN, a native of Sirmium, in Pannonia, was next chosen emperor by the army, A. D. 270, and the senate, well acquainted with his merits, confirmed the election. He made peace with the Goths, and led his army against the Germans, who had once more invaded Italy. Aurelian was at first defeated, but he soon retrieved his fortune, and cut the whole barbarian army to pieces. His next victory was obtained over the Vandals, who had just crossed the Danube. Having thus secured the tranquillity of Europe, he marched into the east against Zenobia.

2. This celebrated queen of Palmyra is one of the most remarkable characters recorded in history. She claimed to be descended from the Ptolemies of Egypt, but it is more probable that she was of Jewish origin; and she is said to have professed the religion of Moses. She was well acquainted with the principal languages of Asia and Europe; she was skilled in the leading sciences of the times, and so well versed in affairs of state, that the successes of her husband, Odenatus, are generally ascribed to her counsels.

3. For nearly six years she ruled Syria and Mesopotamia, discharging all the duties of an excellent sovereign and an intrepid commander. But ambition precipitated the ruin of Zenobia. Not satisfied with the conquest of Egypt, she aspired to the sovereignty of Asia, and Aurelian resolved to put an end to this power which encroached so audaciously upon the dignity of Rome.

4. On his march through Thrace, the emperor fought a great battle with the Goths. He pursued them across the Danube, and slew their king. After this, he crossed the Hellespont into Asia, and encountered the forces of Zenobia near Antioch. The battle was sanguinary and well contested, but the Romans prevailed.

5. A second victory enabled Aurelian to besiege Palmyra, which

CLXXI — 1. What of Aurelian? 2. Zenobia? 3. Of her ambition? 4. Of Aurelian's victories? 5, 6, 7. Of Palmyra?

the dauntless queen defended with great spirit and resolution. At length, finding there was no hope of succor, she attempted secretly to make her escape into Persia, but was betrayed by her servants, and made prisoner. Palmyra surrendered, but after Aurelian had taken possession of the city, garrisoned it, and begun his march for Rome, the inhabitants revolted, and put the Roman garrison to the sword



Zenobia.

6. Aurelian marched backward without delay, took Palmyra by storm, and gave it up to pillage and massacre. The unfortunate inhabitants were put to the sword, without regard to age or sex; torrents of blood were shed; the wealth of the citizens became the prey of a greedy and cruel soldiery; the temples were robbed of their splendid ornaments, and nothing but havoc, massacre and devastation, was seen in this devoted city.

7. This catastrophe was the final ruin of Palmyra, and the splendid capital of Zenobia fell from its ancient power and magnificence, never to rise again. Its ruins in the midst of the Syrian desert now excite the admiration of the traveller by their beauty and grandeur.

CHAPTER CLXXII

Death of Aurelian.

1. SCARCELY had the revolt of the Palmyrenians been quelled, when Aurelian was again called upon to exercise his arms against an insurrection. The troops in Egypt rebelled, but the celerity of Aurelian's march disconcerted this movement, which otherwise might have been formidable. The rebels were speedily conquered, and the emperor, having thus suppressed all the troubles of the east, determined to recover Gaul, Spain, and Britain, which had for thirteen years been the prey of different usurpers.

2. A single campaign restored these provinces to the empire, and Aurelian, returning to Rome, was honored with the most magnificent triumph that the city had ever beheld. Far more honorable to him, however, was his generous treatment of his captives. A suitable estate was granted to Zenobia and her children, in the neighborhood of Rome, and the captive queen, reconciling herself to her lot, became a respectable Roman matron. Her daughters were married into families of distinction, and the race was not extinct at the downfall of the empire.

3. The latter part of the reign of Aurelian was disturbed by a violent insurrection at Rome, occasioned by the debasing of the coinage. The imperial troops, which attempted to drive the insurgents from the Cœlian Hill, were routed, with the loss of several thousand men. But by great exertions the insurrection was quelled.

4. The emperor punished the authors of this revolt with such severity as to bring upon him the general dislike of the citizens. He withdrew from the capital, and amused himself with a campaign in Gaul, where some disturbances had broken out. He then marched to Vindelicia, which he restored to the empire; but he abandoned the province of Dacia to the barbarians, withdrawing all the Roman garrisons that had been stationed beyond the Danube.

5. The sternness of Aurelian's disposition, and the inflexible severity with which he exercised his authority, led finally to his destruction. While he was preparing to march against the Persians, he discovered an act of peculation committed by Mnestheus, one of his secretaries. As the emperor had sentenced his own nephew to death, and the judgment was rigidly executed, the guilty functionary could indulge no hope of escaping the vengeance of his master.

6. By a forged writing, Mnestheus caused a number of persons to believe that they had been marked for destruction by the emperor, and thus induced them to join in a plot to take his life. On the march to Byzantium, Aurelian was attacked by the conspirators, who slew him with innumerable wounds, A. D. 275. But the fraud was soon discovered, and the soldiers, who were fondly attached to their general, tore the assassins to pieces.

CLXXII. — 1. What took place in Egypt? 2. Of Aurelian's triumph? 3, 4. What revolt happened at Rome? 5, 6. How did Aurelian die?

CHAPTER CLXXIII.

Tacitus. — Probus.

1. THE soldiers of Aurelian, after this act of vengeance, exhibited an unaccountable moderation and respect for the laws. Instead of raising one of their number to the imperial dignity, they quietly submitted the election to the senate. The wretched fate of the thirty tyrants appears to have operated as a check to that reckless ambition which marked the character of almost every Roman general, and not one of them on this occasion stepped forward to seize the imperial purple.

2. A tranquil interregnum of more than half a year ensued, and at length the senate made choice of M. Claudius Tacitus, a descendant of the historian of that name. Being in his seventy-fifth year, he refused the dangerous honor, and retired to his farm in Campania, to avoid the importunities of the Romans. The necessities of the state, however, induced him to yield.

3. This emperor was a pattern of temperance, moderation, and impartiality. He paid great attention to the morals of the people. He patronized literature, and ordered ten copies of the works of his ancestor to be transcribed every year, with great care and accuracy, to supply the public libraries.

4. He also distinguished himself as a warrior, and drove back the barbarians, who had made an irruption into Asia Minor. But the fatigues of war proved too much for his feeble age, and he died in Cappadocia, after a reign of seven months.

5. Florian, the brother-in-law of Tacitus, was proclaimed emperor by one portion of the army, and Probus, a Pannonian, by another. The party of the latter proved the stronger, and Florian, finding himself deserted by his friends, opened his arteries, and bled to death.

6. Probus, now undisputed master of the empire, marched into Gaul, which had been invaded by the barbarians of Germany. He defeated them in several battles, in which four hundred thousand of them were left dead upon the field. From Gaul he passed into Thrace, where he overthrew the Goths. In Asia Minor he subdued the insurgent Isaurians, and divided their lands among his veteran soldiers.

7. Alarmed at these victories, Varanus, king of Persia, sent ambassadors to solicit peace, and submitted to the terms dictated by the emperor. Three rebel emperors, who started up in different provinces, were next subdued.

CLXXIII. — 1. What happened on the death of Aurelian? 2, 3. Of Tacitus? 4. What became of him? 5. Florian? 6. Probus? 7. Varanus?

CHAPTER CLXXIV.

Carus, Carinus, and Numerian.

1. THE Goths and Vandals, hoping to find their advantage in these insurrections, again invaded the empire. Probus took the field against them, and drove them back to their native wilds. After this he devoted himself to the arts of peace. He encouraged the inhabitants of Gaul and Illyricum to plant vines, and he restored seventy cities which had fallen into decay, in different parts of the empire.

2. Having passed through his native city of Sirmium, Probus employed several thousands of his soldiers in draining a fen in its neighborhood, by cutting canals to the sea. The troops, disliking this labor, mutinied, and Probus was attacked by them near an iron tower which he had constructed for the purpose of watching their operations.

3. The emperor made his escape into the tower, but having none of his guards with him, he was overpowered and murdered by the soldiers, A. D. 282. Both his friends and enemies lamented his loss. The soldiers repented of their crime, and assisted in raising a stately monument to his memory.

4. Carus, the commander of the Prætorian Guards, was proclaimed emperor by the army, and this choice was confirmed, with some reluctance, by the senate. The new emperor bestowed the title of Cæsar on his two sons, Carinus and Numerian, the former of whom was one of the most depraved young men of the time, and the latter one of the most virtuous.

5. Carinus obtained a brilliant victory over the Sarmatians, and would have carried the war into their own country, had he not been called away by a new invasion of the Persians. He marched into Mesopotamia, where he defeated these latter enemies, and pursued them to the gates of Ctesiphon.

6. The emperor, however, did not live to complete his victories by the capture of the city. He was killed by lightning in his tent, along with a number of his attendants, A. D. 283. The distress of Numerian, who had accompanied his father in this expedition, was so great that he brought on a disease of his eyes by excessive weeping, and was obliged to be carried in a close litter, on the return of the army from Persia.

7. Aper, his father-in-law, conceiving the design of seizing the empire, hired an assassin to murder him in his litter. In order to conceal the deed, he announced that Numerian was unable to bear the light, and the deception was kept up till the odor of the dead corpse discovered the treachery of Aper. An uproar was immediately excited in the army. Dioclesian was immediately proclaimed emperor by the soldiers, and with his own hands put the assassin to death.

CLXXIV. — 1. What of the Goths and Vandals? 2. What were the deeds of Probus? 3. How did he die? 4. Who succeeded him? 5, 6. What of Carus? 7, 8. Of Aper and Numerian?

CHAPTER CLXXV.

Dioclesian. — Galerius. — Constantius.

1. DIOCLESIAN began his reign A. D. 284, This epoch is sometimes regarded as the beginning of a new era, called the "era of martyrs." The observance of this point of time long prevailed in the Christian church, and it is still used by the Copts, the Abyssinians, and the other African Christians.

2. The troubles of the empire appeared too great for one ruler, and Dioclesian selected as a colleague Maximian, a brave and skilful soldier, but also an ignorant and ferocious barbarian. His military talents were soon called into use by the invasions of the barbarians, whom he defeated in several campaigns.

3. A brief interval of tranquillity was followed by new and more alarming disturbances in almost every part of the empire. The two sovereigns, in great alarm, resolved on a further division of authority. Each chose an associate and successor. Dioclesian took Galerius, and Maximian made choice of Constantius Chlorus. A division of the empire followed. Dioclesian retained Asia, Galerius received Thrace and Illyricum, Maximian, Italy and Africa, and Constantius Gaul, Spain, and Britain.

4. Dioclesian obtained many signal successes over the Persians but his triumph was sullied by a general persecution of the Christians, which lasted ten years, and surpassed all that had preceded it in severity. Dioclesian and Maximian resigned the empire on the same day, A. D. 305.

5. Dioclesian survived this act nine years, and never regretted the loss of his throne. When Maximian and others wrote to him advising him to resume the purple, he replied, "If you could see the cabbages I raise in my garden, you would not ask me to take a throne!" Dioclesian was the first Roman emperor that wore a diadem, and the last that enjoyed a triumph.

6. Galerius and Constantius became emperors by the abdication. They divided the empire between them, Galerius taking the east and Constantius the west. Within a year the latter died, at York, in Britain, leaving as his successor, Constantine, his son, afterwards entitled the Great.

7. From the time of the elevation of this prince to the throne, he wavered between paganism and Christianity. He had at first some competitors for the sovereign authority of the west. Among them was Maxentius, who was at that time in possession of Rome. Constantine took up his march for Italy, with an army of nearly one hundred thousand men, and advanced almost to the gates of Rome.

8. Maxentius went out of the city to meet him, with a force nearly

CLXXV.—1. What of the epoch of Dioclesian? 2. What colleague did he choose? 3. What further division of authority was made? 4. Of persecution? Of the resignation of the emperors? 5. What reply was made by Dioclesian? 6. Of Galerius and Constantius? 7. What was the character of Constantine? 8. Of Maxentius?

double. The battle was fierce and bloody, but at length the Prætorian Guards, upon whom Maxentius chiefly relied, were broken and cut to pieces by repeated charges of the Gallic horse. Maxentius himself was drowned in the Tiber, while attempting to make his escape over the Milvian bridge.

CHAPTER CLXXVI.

Constantine the Great.



Constantine.

1. CONSTANTINE, now master of Rome, removed the great source of the calamities which had befallen that city, by disbanding the Prætorian Guards. He restored the authority of the senate and magistrates, recalled all those who had been banished by Maxentius, and dismissed the whole tribe of spies and informers. He revoked the edicts which had been issued against the Christians, and paid great respect to the bishops and clergy.

2. In the mean time, by the death of Galerius, and the overthrow of Maximian, his associate, the empire of the east had passed into

the hands of Licinius, who was a zealous champion of paganism. These rivals were soon engaged in a struggle for the superiority; but at length Licinius, being defeated in two severe battles, was taken prisoner at Nicomedia, and put to death, A. D. 324.

3. Constantine became thus sole master of the Roman empire. During his reign the controversies in the church led to the convocation of the celebrated Council of Nice, A. D. 325, in which the doctrine of the trinity was fixed and defined, the heresy of Arius condemned and the spiritual supremacy of the emperor virtually acknowledged. When the labors of this assembly terminated, Constantine returned to the western provinces, and paid a visit to Rome, where he was received in a manner by no means flattering.

4. The populace loaded him with insults and execrations for abandoning the religion of his forefathers. His rage at this insulting treatment is said to have greatly influenced him in removing the seat of government from Rome to Byzantium. At the same time he was harassed by domestic troubles. Instigated by the Empress Fausta, he put his eldest son, the virtuous Crispus, to death, without a trial, and when too late he discovered his error, he caused Fausta and her accomplices to be slain.

5. These horrid deeds aggravated his unpopularity among the Romans; but he no longer regarded their displeasure, having finally resolved to give a new capital to the empire. For this purpose he made choice of Byzantium on the Thracian Bosphorus, a place with a magnificent harbor, open to the commerce of the Black Sea and the Mediterranean.

6. Here Constantine built a new city, A. D. 330, on a plain rising gently from the water, and commanding the strait which serves as the communication between two great seas. Enormous sums were spent in embellishing the new metropolis, which was divided into fourteen regions, and adorned with a capitol, amphitheatre, splendid palaces, churches, and other public buildings.

7. This city received the name of Constantinople; and its long prosperity, and the invincible resistance which it offered to its barbarian aggressors for a thousand years, show how admirably sagacious was the choice of its founder.

8. The removal of the seat of government completed the change in the Roman constitution, which had been commenced in the reign of Dioclesian; it became a simple despotism, with more of a political than of a military character. After he had fixed his residence in the new capital, Constantine adopted oriental manners.

9. He affected the gorgeous attire of the Persian monarchs, decorated his head with false hair of different colors, and with a diadem covered with pearls and gems. He substituted flowing robes of silk, embroidered with flowers, for the austere garb of Rome, or the unadorned purple of the first emperors. He filled his palace with spies and parasites, and lavished the wealth of the empire upon stately architecture.

cil of Nice? 4. How was Constantine received at Rome? How did he behave? 5. What new designs did he meditate? 6, 7. What of the building of Constantinople? 8. How did this affect the Roman constitution? 9. What of Constantine's manners, dress, &c? 10. Of Christianity? 11. Of the death of Constantine?

10. Under Constantine, Christianity became the established religion of the empire; yet the emperor himself was hardly a Christian. Up to the age of forty he had continued to make a public profession of paganism, although he had long favored the Christians. His devotion was divided between Jesus and Apollo, and he adorned the temples of the pagan gods, and the altars of the new faith, with equal offerings.

11. But as he advanced in age, his confidence in the Christians increased, and he gave up to them the education of his children. When he felt the attacks of the disease which terminated his life, at the age of sixty-three, he was formally received into the church and baptized. He expired at Nicomedia, A. D. 337.

CHAPTER CLXXVII.

The Sons of Constantine.

1. AT the death of Constantine, the Roman empire, by his directions, was ordered to be divided among his three sons and two nephews. Constantine II., the eldest son, received Gaul, Spain, and Britain. To Constantius, the second son, were allotted Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt, and to Constans, the youngest, Italy, Illyricum, and Africa. Beside this division, Constantine had bequeathed other countries to his nephews, Dalmatius and Hannibalianus, but the senate paid no attention to this part of his will.

2. The three sons of Constantine had been educated with the greatest care. The most pious of the Christian teachers, the most celebrated professors of the Grecian philosophy and Roman jurisprudence, had been engaged to superintend their instruction. But the princes resembled their mother Fausta more than their illustrious father.

3. Before they had emerged from boyhood they were successively invested with the title of Cæsar, and intrusted with a share in the government. Such injudicious indulgence necessarily surrounded them with a crowd of flatterers, and exposed them to the corrupt adulations of a court.

4. Constantius was near the capital when his father died. He hastened to take possession of the palace, but his kinsmen being apprehensive of his jealous temper, compelled him to take an oath to protect them from danger. A few days afterwards a forged scroll made its appearance through the hands of the celebrated Eusebius, the bishop of Nicomedia.

5. This purported to be a document, signed by the late emperor, accusing his brothers of having poisoned him, and calling upon his sons for vengeance. The soldiers, who were secretly prepared to second this atrocious and incredible charge, loudly demanded the punishment of the accused.

CLXXVII. — 1. What division did Constantine make of the empire? 2, 3. What of his three sons? 4. Of Constantius? 5. Of the forgery? 6. The massacre? 7. How was the empire next divided? 8. What of Constans and Constantine?

6 All legal forms were violated, and a promiscuous massacre was made of the Flavian family. Gallus and Julian, the youngest sons of Julius Constantius, were with difficulty concealed till the rage of the assassins had subsided. A division of the whole empire was then made by the princes.

7. The eldest took possession of Constantinople; the second received Thrace and the Asiatic provinces; the west was assigned to Constans. The eldest, however, not contented with his own portion, invaded the dominion of Constans, and made himself master of several towns in Italy.

9. Constans took the field against his brother, and Constantine, having fallen into an ambuscade near Aquileia, was cut off with his whole army. His body was thrown into a river, but was afterwards found, and carried to Constantinople for interment.

CHAPTER CLXXVIII.

Constans. — Julian the Apostate.

1. CONSTANS retained undisturbed possession of the western empire for ten years; but his indolence having brought him into contempt with the army, Magnentius, a German, revolted against him. The emperor fled into Spain, but was pursued and put to death at a little village among the Pyrenees.

2. Constantius, in the mean time, was engaged in a war with the Persians. Having terminated this successfully, he found occupation for his armies in the west, where several usurpers had started up. Nepotian, a nephew of Constantine the Great, made himself master of Rome, and committed great slaughter among the inhabitants. He was overthrown by Marcellinus, the prime minister of Magnentius.

3. Other revolutions followed, the particulars of which would be little instructive or amusing to the reader. Constantius raised his cousin Gallus to the rank of Cæsar, and overthrew Magnentius at the battle of Mursa, in Pannonia. The tranquillity which followed was of short duration. The empire was disturbed by irruptions of the barbarians of the north, and by the tyrannical conduct and cruelties of Gallus, who, at the instigation of his wife, filled the provinces with bloodshed.

4. Constantius at length put him to death, and raised his cousin Julian to the dignity of Cæsar. Though this young man had devoted himself principally to literature, yet he exhibited the greatest bravery and skill as a soldier. Constantius appointed him governor of Gaul, and gave him his sister Helena in marriage.

5. Julian began his march for Gaul, and having come up with an army of barbarians in a thick wood between Auxerre and Troyes, he defeated them with great slaughter. He next overthrew a host of Germans, advanced to Cologne, repaired its fortifications, and went into winter quarters at Sens, in Gaul.

6. Here he was besieged by the barbarians for nearly a month, but forced them to retire. He then drove the enemy out of their retreats in the islands of the Rhine, defeated a great army commanded by seven kings, near Strasburg, and effected the complete pacification of the country.



Julian

7. Julian was in his thirty-second year, when, by the death of his cousin, A. D. 361, he became sole emperor. He had been educated a Christian, but he abandoned that religion for paganism, and by that step acquired in history the surname of the Apostate. Vanity was strongly marked in his character; he chose to be regarded as a philosopher rather than as a sovereign.

8. To acquire that title, he thought fit to disregard some of the common decencies of life. A treatise is still extant from his pen, in which he expatiates with singular complacency on the filthy state of his beard, the length of his nails, and the inky blackness of his hands, as if cleanliness were inconsistent with the philosophic character.

nentius, and the barbarians? 4 Julian? 5, 6. The war in Gaul? 7. Of Julian's apostacy? 8. His writings?

CHAPTER CLXXIX.

Death of Julian.

1. In every other respect the conduct of Julian merits high praise. He was just, merciful, and tolerant. Though frequently urged to become a persecutor, he allowed his subjects that freedom of opinion which he claimed for himself. But though Julian would not inflict punishment for a difference of opinion, he enacted several disqualifying laws, by which he labored to deprive the Christians of wealth, knowledge, and power. He ordered their schools to be closed, and he jealously excluded them from all civil and military offices.

2. In a war against the Persians, Julian advanced triumphantly as far as the Tigris; but the enemy, though defeated in the field, adopted a means of defence more terrible to an invader than arms. They laid waste the country, destroyed the villages, and burnt the crops, in the line of march pursued by the Romans.

3. A burning sun weakened the powers of the western veterans, and when famine was added to the severities of the climate, their sufferings became intolerable. With a heavy heart, Julian at length gave orders for a retreat, and led his exhausted soldiers back over the desert plains which they had already passed with so much difficulty.

4. But the march of the Romans was greatly impeded by the light cavalry of the Persians, who hovered round their flanks and rear, discharging showers of darts and arrows, but retreating whenever an attempt was made to bring them to a general engagement.

5. At length the rear guard of the Romans was thrown into disorder by a charge of the enemy. Julian flew to its succor, with no other defensive arms than his buckler. The Persians were put to flight, but the emperor was struck by an arrow. As he tried to draw it out, another pierced his fingers. He fell from his horse, fainting and bathed in blood, and was carried to his tent, where he expired the same night, A. D. 363.

6. The name of Apostate has sullied the character of this emperor, yet it must be borne in mind that he was taught Christianity by a prince who was the murderer of his relatives, and that his dislike of that religion, under such circumstances, was quite natural.

7. Notwithstanding his vanity and paganism, Julian had many shining qualities. He did not directly persecute the Christians, though he did much to injure them and their cause. He attempted to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem, and restore the Jewish worship; but in this design he is said to have met with a most extraordinary obstacle. A miraculous explosion of fire from beneath the foundations of the temple destroyed the workmen, and put a stop to the whole undertaking. Many critical writers, however, question the truth of this story.

CLXXIX. — 1. What was the character of Julian? 2. Of the Persian war? 3, 4. What misfortune happened to the Romans? 5. How did Julian die? 6. Of his apostacy? 7. Of his attempt to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem?

CHAPTER CLXXX.

Valentinian and Valens. — Division of the Empire.

1. On the death of Julian, the army unanimously raised to the empire, Jovian, a Pannonian, who bore the reputation of an able general. Having been educated a Christian, he at first declined the charge, on the ground that the people whom he was called to govern had relapsed into idolatry. But when the soldiers assured him that they preferred Christianity, his scruples were overcome.

2. The army was now in extreme distress; a famine raged in the camp to such a degree that every man would have perished had not the Persians made offers of peace. Though the terms were, on the whole, disadvantageous, they were willingly accepted.

3. The first edict of Jovian was a repeal of Julian's disqualifying laws respecting the Christians; at the same time he calmed the fears of his pagan subjects by a wise edict of toleration, in which he prohibited no rites, however idolatrous, except those of magic.

4. These judicious measures at once showed how ineffectual had been the efforts of Julian to revive the fallen spirit of paganism. The heathen temples were immediately deserted, the sacrifices neglected, and the priests left alone at their altars. Those persons, who, to gratify the former sovereign, had assumed the dress and title of philosophers, were assailed by such storms of ridicule, that they laid aside the designation, shaved their beards, and were soon undistinguished in the general mass of society.

5. Jovian did not long survive this peaceful triumph of Christianity. On his journey toward Constantinople, he slept in a damp room, which his attendants heated with charcoal. The emperor was suffocated by the vapor, and found dead in his bed, A. D. 364.

6. For ten days after the death of Jovian, the Roman world remained without a sovereign. At length Valentinian was chosen by the council of ministers and generals, and the army acquiesced in their decision. The new emperor divided his dominion with his brother Valens, to whom he assigned the eastern provinces, reserving to himself Italy, Gaul, Spain, Britain, Africa and Illyricum.

7. The emperor of the west established his court at Milan, the eastern emperor resided at Constantinople. This division of the empire was so manifestly required by the necessities of the times, that all parties readily acquiesced in the arrangement. The annals of the Byzantine empire from this period form a separate history, although the two governments had occasional connections for a few years afterwards.

8. Valentinian displayed his military skill against the barbarians of Africa and Gaul, and those on the banks of the Rhine and Danube. The Quadi sent ambassadors to sue for peace, but the emperor upbraided them for their conduct, and while speaking with great warmth,

CLXXX. — 1. Who succeeded Julian? 2. What of the army? 3, 4. What was the conduct of Jovian in regard to religion? 5. How did Jovian die? 6. Who succeeded

he burst a blood-vessel and fell upon the ground, where he expired, A. D. 375.

9 The reign of Valens in the east was disturbed by revolts, which were aided by the Goths; but these were repressed. Valens persecuted the orthodox clergy; and a deputation of eighty of these being sent to remonstrate with him, he ordered them to be put to death. The person who was charged with this odious duty, dreading a popular commotion, put them all on board a ship, and when it was at some distance from the shore, the sailors set it on fire, and escaped in their boats.

10. Valens also persecuted those who professed to be magicians, and all who had books of magic in their possession. People of all ranks burnt their libraries, lest their enemies might have secretly introduced such works into them.

11. The Goths, after committing great ravages in Macedonia and Thessaly, advanced toward Constantinople. A sanguinary battle was fought at Adrianople, in which the Romans were completely overthrown. The emperor escaped from the field in the darkness of the night, and took refuge in a hut, which was set on fire by the enemy, and Valens was burnt to death, A. D. 378. In the mean time, Gratian, the son of Valentinian, had succeeded his father in the west. By the death of Valens he became master of the whole Roman world.

CHAPTER CLXXXI.

Gratian. — Invasion of the Huns.

1. BOTH the eastern and western empires were beginning to enjoy the sweets of repose, when a people more barbarous and ferocious than any previously known appeared on the north-eastern frontiers. These were the Huns, who came from that vast region of central Asia comprised between the river Irtysh, the Altaian Mountains, the great wall of China, and Mantchoo Tartary.

2. Their persons are represented by the historians of that day as a frightful caricature of humanity; their faces were more like lumps of flesh than a composition of intelligent features. Their deformed shapes may have been caused in some degree by their strange custom of flattening the nose of their male infants as soon as they were born, in order that the vizor which they wore in battle should fit closer to the face. They had also the custom of plucking out the beard as soon as it began to grow.

3. They lived on flesh either entirely raw, or sodden by being placed under their saddles when riding at a heavy gallop. Their life was devoted to war and hunting; they left the cultivation of their fields to the women and slaves. They built no cities, and erected no houses.

him? 7. How was the empire divided? 8. What of Valentinian? 9, 10. Of Valens and his persecutions? 11. The Goths? How did Valens die?

CLXXXI. -- 1. What of the Huns? 2, 3. How are they described? 4. What of

A place surrounded by walls they looked upon as a sepulchre, and they never believed themselves in safety beneath a roof.

4. About the commencement of the second century, the southern Huns, aided by the Chinese and the eastern Tartars, expelled their northern brethren from their ancient habitations, and compelled them to seek refuge in the Territory of the Bakshirs. Here they were brought into contact with the Alans, whom they gradually drove before them, being pressed forward themselves by fresh hordes from the east, until they took possession of the places between the Volga and the Don.

5. Being now joined by the Alans, and other barbarous tribes whom they had conquered, the Huns crossed the latter river with their innumerable cavalry, and swept the rich fields of the Ostrogoths. The latter were defeated, and at length the greater part of the nation abandoned the country, and retired behind the Dnieper and Dniester. The Huns made a horrible carnage of all who remained, sparing neither women nor children.

6. The conquerors soon passed the Dniester, and inflicted the same calamities on the Visigoths. The whole Gothic nation was now reduced to despair; their warriors, who had so often maintained a fierce struggle against the Roman legions, now appeared as suppliants on the banks of the Danube, begging for permission to cultivate the waste lands of Thrace.

7. This request was granted, on condition that they would resign their arms. But the officers who were sent to see this stipulation enforced were bribed; the Goths retained their weapons, which they regarded as the means of obtaining more valuable possessions than those which they had lost.

CHAPTER CLXXXII.

Theodosius the Great.

1. GRATIAN assumed Theodosius as his partner in the empire, and assigned him the provinces which Valens had governed. By his skill and experience in war, this prince obtained many splendid victories over the barbarians. He defeated the Goths in Thrace, and captured four thousand of their chariots, with an immense number of prisoners.

2. He also gained the good-will of this nation by his equitable and moderate conduct, and they resolved never more to molest the Romans, but guarded the banks of the Danube to prevent any invasion of the empire from that quarter. Gratian, being a zealous Christian, displayed his enmity to paganism in such a manner as to cause a revolt. He was defeated and slain near Paris, A. D. 383.

3. Maximinus, who was at the head of this insurrection, became

Chinese, Tartars, Alans, &c. ? 5. Of the invasion of the Huns? 6. What was the condition of the Gothic nation?

CLXXXII. — 1. What of Gratian and Theodosius? 2. What became of Gratian?

emperor of the west ; but in a few years he was overthrown by Theodosius, and put to death. The city of Alexandria, in Egypt, was at this time disturbed by the animosities of the Christians and pagans. The latter having attacked their opponents, Theodosius resolved to punish them severely.



Theodosius.

4. He ordered all the pagan temples in that city to be thrown down, and on his return to Constantinople he completed his design by commanding all the heathen temples throughout the empire to be destroyed. His persecutions were directed with equal zeal against the Christians who differed from him in opinion, and he ordered the Arians to be expelled from every city in the empire.

5. Valentinian II., the emperor of the west, having placed too much confidence in his general, Arbogastes, a native of Gaul, was treacherously murdered by him at Vienne, in that country. The traitor might have seized upon the throne, but instead of this he invested with the purple Eugenius, one of the imperial secretaries, and reigned in his name.

6. He sent deputations to Theodosius, but the latter refused to enter into any negotiations with the usurper, and made preparations for war. Having raised a powerful army, he crossed the Alps, and

3. What of Maximinus? 4. Of the persecutions of Theodosius? 5. What of Valen

encountered the forces of Eugenius on the banks of the Wibach. The usurper was defeated, and his own soldiers cut off his head while he was begging for his life before Theodosius.

7. Arbogastes fled into the mountains, where he committed suicide. His children, with those of Eugenius, took refuge in the churches. Theodosius granted them a pardon, restored to them their paternal estates, and raised them to honorable stations in the government.

8. In consequence of this victory, Theodosius became master of the whole Roman world. But he was well aware that the division of the empire into east and west had now become a permanent necessity. He therefore, by his will, appointed Arcadius, his elder son, emperor of the east, and Honorius, the younger, emperor of the west. Shortly after making this arrangement, as he was preparing to return to Constantinople, he was attacked by a dropsy, at Milan, and died in that city, A. D. 395.

CHAPTER CLXXXIII.

Arcadius and Honorius.

1. THE memory of their father's virtues protected the feeble youth of Arcadius and Honorius. Stilicho, a general of superior abilities, and a statesman of profound wisdom, acted as the guardian of Honorius. He was descended from the perfidious race of the Vandals, and possessed in an eminent degree the cunning, treachery, and cruelty that characterized his nation.

2. Rufinus, who possessed all the bad qualities of Stilicho, without his redeeming virtues, administered the government of the east, under Arcadius. The ministers of the two empires hated each other most cordially, and each secretly sought to remove his rival.

3. A Gothic leader of the Roman troops, named Gainas, who was supposed to act from the instigation of Stilicho, put Rufinus to death. Arcadius chose for his new minister, Eutropius, one of his servants, and Gainas now declared himself the determined enemy of his former general.

4. The national hatred between the Greeks and the Romans was excited by the rival ministers, and thus, at a moment when a close union was necessary to prevent ruin, the subjects of Arcadius and Honorius were induced to regard each other not only as foreigners, but as enemies.

5. The Goths, who had remained quiet during the reign of Theodosius, disdained submission to his unwarlike successors. On pretence that the subsidy prudently paid them by the late emperor was withheld, they raised the standard of revolt, and chose for their leader

tinian and Arbogastes? 6. What was the fate of Eugenius? 7. Of Arbogastes? 8. How did Theodosius divide the empire?

CLXXXIII. — 1. What of Arcadius and Honorius? Of Stilicho? 2. Of Rufinus? 3. Of Gainas and Eutropius? 4. Of the Greeks and Romans? 5. The Goths? Alaric? 6. What of his invasion of Greece? 7. What of Stilicho and Alaric?

Alaric, the most formidable enemy that the Romans had hitherto encountered.

6. Alaric, instead of confining his depredations to the northern provinces, which were already wasted by frequent incursions, resolved to invade Greece, where the din of arms had not been heard for centuries. The barbarians encountered little or no resistance. The memorable pass of Thermopylæ was abandoned by its garrison, and the Goths ravaged the whole country without opposition.

7. The Greeks, unable to protect themselves, sought the aid of Stilicho, and that great leader hastened to their assistance. He inflicted a severe defeat on the Goths, but soon learnt that the court of Constantinople had concluded a treaty of peace with Alaric. Stilicho returned to Italy, while the eastern emperor, with incomprehensible folly, nominated the Gothic leader Master-General of Eastern Illyricum.

CHAPTER CLXXXIV.

The Britons.

1. FROM the time when the barbarians established themselves in all parts of the empire, this vast portion of the world, heretofore subject to the levelling influence of a despotism which had broken down all distinctions and all differences, now presented the wildest assemblage of dissimilar manners, opinions, languages, religions, and governments. In spite of the habits of servility which were hereditary among the subjects of the empire, their subordination was broken up; the law no longer reached them; oppression or protection no longer emanated from Rome or from Constantinople.

2. The supreme power, in its impotence, had called upon them to govern themselves; and ancient national manners, ancient local opinions, began to reappear under the borrowed garb of Rome. But this strange medley of provincialisms was nothing compared to that introduced by the barbarians, who had pitched their camps in the midst of Roman cities, and whose kings were constantly intermingled with senators and with bishops.

3. At one extremity of the Roman dominions, the island of Britain escaped from the power which had civilized but enervated it. Stilicho had withdrawn the legions from it for the defence of Italy. The usurper Constantine, who had revolted against Honorius between the years 407 and 411, and who, after reducing Britain, had attempted the conquest of Gaul, led thither all the soldiers who still remained in the island.

4. After he was defeated, and his head sent to Ravenna, Honorius did not choose to deprive himself of any portion of his troops for the defence of so remote a province; he wrote to the cities of Britain as

if they already formed an independent confederation, and exhorted them to provide for their own defence.

5. Fourteen of these cities were considerable; several had already made great progress in arts and commerce, and, above all, in that Roman luxury which so rapidly tamed and deadened the fiercest courage.

6. London was a large and flourishing town; but, among its numerous inhabitants, not one was found who dared to take up arms. Its municipal government, established on the Roman system, like those of York, Canterbury, Cambridge, &c., would have given them the advantages of a republican administration, if they had preserved a little more public spirit; but the poison of a foreign domination had sapped the vital energies of the country.

7. It is in the country, and not in the towns, that we must look for the first symptoms of the revival of a national feeling. The Celtic language, which was almost extinct in Gaul, had been preserved in Britain, — a proof that the rural population was not utterly crushed.

8. It seems that the rich proprietors, the British senators, were aware that their security and their power depended wholly on their union with the people; it is probable that they lived in the midst of their peasantry, and learned their language; at all events, we find them reappearing under British, and not under Roman names, in that struggle which they were soon called upon to sustain with the Picts and Scots, and, at a later period, with the Saxons.

9. The condition of Armorica, or Brittany, was nearly similar, both in the nature of its population, which had likewise preserved the Celtic language and manners, and in its remoteness from the centre of the empire. The Armorican cities also formed a league which raised a sort of militia for their own defence, and inspired some respect up to the time of the Frankish invasion.

10. The vigor of the fierce Osismians, who inhabited the western coast of Brittany; their courage, their agility, their attachment to their hereditary chieftains, recalled to the rest of the Gauls what their fathers had been. They resembled those mountaineers of Scotland whom Sir Walter Scott has so admirably depicted, such as they remained scarcely more than half a century ago.

11. In spite of the prohibitory laws of Augustus and Claudius, many of them adhered to the primitive worship of the gods of the Druids; those atrocious divinities, whose altars were buried in the depths of forests, and stained with human blood. Others had embraced Christianity, and, during four centuries, they furnished a great number of saints to the church of Rome.

12. So long as the British heroes, such as Hoel, Allan, Judicael, (to whom several churches were dedicated,) retained the vigor of youth or manhood, they knew no other passion than that for war; they poured down by night on the nearest Roman or Gaulish villages, which they pillaged and burned; but, when their ferocity was tamed by age, and began to give place to the terrors of a future judgment, they shut themselves up in convents, and lived a life of the severest penance.

conduct towards the Britons? 5. The British cities? 6. London? 7. The Celtic language? 8. The British senators? 9. Armorica? 10. The Osismians?

CHAPTER CLXXXV.

The Franks, Burgundians, and Visigoths.

1. THE Franks had begun to cross over from the eastern to the western bank of the Rhine, and had made some settlements in Belgium; but, faithful to their alliance with the empire, which had made the greatest exertions and sacrifices to preserve their friendship, they everywhere appeared in the character of soldiers of the emperors: their numerous petty sovereigns solicited imperial dignities; their highest ambition was to rise at the court of the sons of Theodosius; and they had learned how to combine the arts of intrigue with valor.

2. They oppressed and despoiled the peasantry upon whom they were quartered; in a sudden burst of fury, or in a fit of rapacity, they attacked large cities; even Trèves, the capital of all the Gauls, and Cologne, the chief town of Lower Germany, were on several occasions pillaged by them. But the emperors and their prefects were too sensible of the importance of their Frankish allies to cherish long resentment, and peace was soon concluded at the expense of the defenceless sufferers.

3. The Burgundians in eastern, and the Visigoths in southern Gaul, also called themselves the soldiers of the emperors. Their condition was, however, very different from that of the Franks; the entire nation had transmigrated into a new abode, without acknowledging any fixed limits; it had extended its dominion wherever it could make its power feared.

4. The king of the Burgundians sometimes held his court at Vienne on the Rhone, sometimes at Lyons or Geneva; the kings of the Visigoths at Narbonne, at Bordeaux, or oftener at Toulouse; the city was subject to them, yet Roman magistrates still continued to regulate the police, and to administer justice according to Roman laws, and in favor of Roman subjects.

5. The Visigoths and the Burgundians had appropriated lands either waste, or taken from the original proprietors without many formalities; these were abandoned to their flocks and herds, or occasionally cultivated by their slaves; but negligently and without any outlay which must await a tardy return. They chose to be ready to quit the fields they had sown, the next year, if needful.

6. The two nations had not yet taken root in the soil. The Visigoths sometimes passed over from Aquitaine into Spain; the Burgundians from the banks of the Rhine to those of the Moselle. The habits of a wandering life, confirmed by half a century, could not be broken through at once; all the Visigoths were Christians, but of the Arian sect, as were also the Burgundians. The bishops hated heresy far more than paganism.

CLXXXV. — 1. What of the Franks in the empire? 2. Of their ravages and oppression? 3. The Burgundians? 4. The Burgundian and Visigothic kings? 5. Their occupation of the lands? 6. Their wandering habits?

CHAPTER CLXXXVI.

The Barbarian Governments.

1. **NEVERTHELESS**, the priests understood too well where the power of the sword lay, to dispute the authority of these barbaric kings, as they had lately disputed that of the emperors. At Toulouse and at Vienne, they paid their court conjointly with the senators; the prelates, in all the pomp of their ecclesiastical ornaments, and the senators, still wearing the once awe-inspiring toga, mingled with the rude warriors whom they hated and despised, but whose favor they sought and gained by dexterous flattery.

2. The same form of civil administration still subsisted. A prætorian prefect still resided at Trèves; a vicar of the seventeen Gallic provinces at Arles; each of these provinces had its Roman duke; each of the hundred and fifteen cities of Gaul had its count; each city its curia, or municipality. But, collaterally with this Roman organization, the barbarians, assembled in their *mallum*, or parliament, of which their kings were presidents, decided on peace and war, made laws, or administered justice.

3. Each division of the army had its Graf Jarl, or count; each subdivision its centenary, or hundred-man; and all these fractions of the free population had the same right of deciding by suffrage, in their own mallums, or peculiar courts, all their common affairs. In cases of opposition between the barbarian and the Roman jurisdiction, the overbearing arrogance of the one, and the abject baseness of the other, soon decided the question of supremacy.

4. In some provinces the two powers were not concurrent; there were no barbarians between the Loire and the Meuse, nor between the Alps and the Rhone; but the feebleness of the Roman government was only the more conspicuous. A few great proprietors cultivated a part of the province with the aid of slaves; the rest was desert, or only inhabited by Bagaudæ, runaway slaves, who lived by robbery.

5. Some towns still maintained a show of opulence, but not one gave the slightest sign of strength; not one enrolled its militia, nor repaired its fortifications. Tours, renowned for the tomb of St. Martin, and the miracles attributed to it, appeared to be a capital of priests, nothing was to be seen within its walls but processions, churches, chapels, and books of devotion exposed for sale.

6. Trèves and Arles had not lost their ancient passion for the games of the circus, and the crowd could not tear themselves from the theatre when the barbarians were at their gates. Other towns, and especially the villages, remained faithful to their ancient gods; and, spite of the edicts of successive emperors, many temples were

CLXXXVI. — 1. How did the priests conduct toward the barbarian kings? 2. Of the government of the barbarians? 3. The army and counts? 4. How was the country between the Loire and the Meuse? 5. What of Tours? 6. Trèves, Arles, and others? 7. Of Honorius in southern Gaul?

still consecrated to Paganism ; many continued so, even to the end of the sixth century.

7. Honorius wished to confer on the cities of southern Gaul a diet, at which they might have deliberated on public affairs ; but he did not even find public spirit enough to accept the offered privilege. It is true that they suspected, and, probably, not without reason, that his edict concealed some projects of financial extortion.

CHAPTER CLXXXVII.

Spain, the Vandals and Alani.

1. THE description we have given of the state of Gaul applies equally to that of Spain, where the kings of the Suevi, the Vandals, the Alans, the Silingi, were encamped with their troops and their followers in the midst of Roman subjects, who had long ceased to offer resistance, yet whose abject submission had not earned for them the peace of slaves.

2. A great portion of Spain was still Roman ; but the districts which the barbarians had not yet entered had no communication with each other, nor with the seat of government ; they could hope for no protection from any neighboring aggression. Besides, if the barbarians occasionally plundered them with rapacity, or even, at their first coming, butchered the inhabitants most exposed to their fury, they afterwards protected the remaining population against the extortions of tax-gatherers ; and the demands of the state were so excessive that the people often preferred the sword of the Vandal to the staff of the lictor.

3. Even Italy, which was, perhaps, more uncultivated than any of the distant provinces, — Italy, whose richest plains were disfigured by wild forests, or unwholesome marshes, — was not exempt from the barbarian yoke. Although no longer occupied by a conqueror, she found hard masters in the confederates, or auxiliary troops of Germans and Scythians, of which the armies were almost entirely composed.

4. Their tyranny, which was that of the sword, did not, however, preserve the inhabitants from the more oppressive power of the Roman magistrates. Pannonia and the banks of the Danube were no sooner evacuated by the Goths, than they were occupied by other nations of barbarians.

5. The Moors and the Gætuli, and still more the fanatical Donatists and Circumcellians, two sects of infuriated heretics, kept Africa in a continued state of alarm. In short, there was not a single province of the western empire in which a uniform government was maintained, or in which, under a common protection, man could live securely among his fellow-men.

CLXXXVII. — 1. What barbarian nations were encamped in Spain ? 2. Of Roman Spain ? 3. What was the state of Italy ? 4. Pannonia ? 5. Africa ? What was the general state of the western empire with respect to government ?

CHAPTER CLXXXVIII.

Separation of Britain from the Empire.

1. FROM the time of the death of Honorius, and the recall of the last of the Roman legions sent to defend it, we have hardly had occasion to mention the island of Britain, which, after having been for a while drawn into the huge vortex of the world of Rome, had completely escaped from it.

2. From that time, she had formed a world apart, severed from the rest of mankind, a stranger to the hopes and the fears by which Europe was agitated. She had been forgotten by the other former provinces of Rome, with which she had been associated in a common dependence, and in the ten books of the History of the Franks, by Gregory of Tours, not a single British name occurs.

3. The total oblivion into which Britain had fallen among the Greeks is still more extraordinary. Two centuries and a half after the legions of Britain had given to the empire the future founder of Constantinople ; one century only after the final recall of the Romans ; Procopius, the first historian of the lower empire, consigns Britain to a place in the regions of prodigies and fables. He relates, that the souls of those who die in Gaul are nightly borne to the shores of that island, and delivered over to the infernal powers, by the boatmen of Friesland and Batavia.

4. "These boatmen," says he, "see no one ; but in the dead of night, a terrible voice calls them to their mysterious office. They find by the shore strange and unknown boats ready to sail ; they feel the weight of the souls which enter them, one after the other, till the gunwale of the boat sinks to a level with the water. Nevertheless, they still see nothing. The same night they reach the coast of Britain. Another voice calls the ghosts, one by one, and they land in silence." Such, after a short but total cessation of intercourse, was the only notion of England entertained by the rest of mankind.

5. Britain, however, in her isolation, had shared the fate of the other dismembered portions of the empire. The same struggle had arisen between the barbarians, and those who had caught civilization from their Roman masters. But neither the people, nor the circumstances which brought about the overthrow of the continental domination of Rome, were the same as those which caused the destruction of the system she had established in Britain.

6. If, in her progress from ancient to modern civilization, through barbarism, Britain underwent nearly the same changes, it is a proof that the fate of Europe was the consequence of internal organization, the operation of which was everywhere the same, and not of events which varied with each particular country.

CLXXXVIII. — 1. What was the state of Britain after the death of Honorius ? 2. Of Gregory of Tours ? 3, 4. What does Procopius relate of Britain ? 5, 6. Of the people of Britain ? 7. When was Britain separated from the rest of the world ?

7. This total separation of Britain from the rest of the world begins from the year 426 or 427, the supposed date of the departure of the last Roman legion from her shores. It ends, or at least becomes less distinct, from the time of the coronation of Alfred the Great, in 872

CHAPTER CLXXXIX.

Stilicho.

1. STILICHO was soon called upon to defend Italy against Alaric, who forced a passage over the Julian Alps, and advanced towards Milan. Honorius fled from his capital, but was so closely pursued, that he was overtaken and besieged in Asta. The rapid march of Stilicho saved the emperor, and the Goths were defeated on the same plains where Marius had overthrown the Cimbri.

2. Alaric, having rallied his shattered forces, moved rapidly toward Rome. The capital was saved by the diligence of Stilicho, but the departure of the Goths from Italy was purchased by a large tribute. This invasion so alarmed the timid Honorius, that he resolved to fix his residence in some strong fortress, and for this purpose he selected Ravenna, on the Adriatic.

3. Before Italy had recovered from the terrors of the Gothic invasion, a new horde of barbarians, from the shores of the Baltic, swept over Germany and Gaul, and crossed the Alps, the Po and the Apennines, before an army could be assembled to resist them. These consisted of a mixture of Vandals, Suevi, Burgundians and Goths, under the conduct of Radagaisus, a more formidable enemy even than Alaric.

4. The Goths had embraced Christianity, and their fierce passions were in some degree moderated by the mild precepts of the gospel. But Radagaisus was a stranger to any religion but the cruel creed of his fathers, which taught that the favor of the gods could be propitiated only by human sacrifices.

5. The wealthy city of Florence was besieged by the barbarians; but this place, being well garrisoned and provisioned, held out till the arrival of Stilicho, who again earned the title of Deliverer of Italy. He blockaded the army of Radagaisus, and compelled the besiegers to surrender at discretion, A. D. 406. The barbarian leader was put to death, and his followers were sold as slaves.

6. Those of the hordes who were not involved in the calamity of Florence fell back upon Gaul, and laid waste that province from the Rhine to the Pyrenees. The provincials, receiving no aid from the court of Ravenna, proclaimed Constantine, the governor of Britain, emperor. Stilicho entered into a treaty with Alaric against the

CLXXXIX. — 1. What of Stilicho and Honorius? 2. Of Alaric's march to Rome? 3. What new horde of barbarians invaded the empire? 4. What of Radagaisus? 5. Of the siege of Florence? 6. What became of Stilicho? 7. What of Olympiodorus? 8. What was done by the barbarian soldiers?

usurper ; but before it could be carried into effect, this last great general of the Romans was treacherously murdered by his unworthy master, A. D. 408.

7. Olympius, a miserable favorite, was elevated to his office. The first measure of the new minister was as impolitic as it was monstrous. He ordered a promiscuous massacre of the families of the barbarians throughout Italy, instead of retaining them as hostages for the fidelity of the mercenary cohorts.

8. The cruel edict was too well obeyed ; and thirty thousand of the bravest soldiers in the Roman pay invited Alaric to head them in avenging the slaughter of their wives and children. The Goths marched immediately into Italy, and, disdaining meaner prizes, took their course directly towards Rome.

CHAPTER CXC.

Alaric, Attila, and Genseric.

1. ALARIC laid siege to Rome A. D. 408, and would have captured the city had not the emperor complied with his demand for a ransom. This consisted of five thousand pounds of gold, thirty thousand pounds of silver, four thousand silk garments, three thousand skins dyed purple, and three thousand pounds of pepper. To furnish these materials, the temples of Rome were stripped of their remaining ornaments, and, among others, of the statue of Valor, which the pagans did not fail to interpret as a presage of the speedy ruin of the state.

2. Alaric, having received this treasure, departed for a short time, but soon returned, captured the city, and gave it up to be plundered by his soldiers. The churches, however, were spared. On the sixth day after the capture, the Goths evacuated Rome and marched to the south.

3. Alaric was preparing to invade Sicily, when he was attacked by a sickness which quickly put an end to his life. His body was interred in the bed of a small river near Cosenza, and the captives who prepared his grave were murdered, that the Romans might never know the place of his sepulture.

4. Honorius died A. D. 423. His nephew, Valentinian III., was declared emperor of the west, under the guardianship of his mother Placidia. He was scarcely seated on the throne when the empire was invaded by the Huns. The Romans had two celebrated generals, Ætius and Boniface, who by their union might have saved the empire.

5. But unhappily, through the treachery of Ætius, his rival was driven into a revolt, a civil war ensued, and Boniface lost his life.

CXC. — 1. What of the siege of Rome by Alaric ? 2. Of its capture ? 3. Of the death of Alaric ? 4. Of Honorius and Valentinian ? 5. Of Ætius and Boniface ? 6. Of the

Ætius, notwithstanding his treachery, was pardoned, and placed at the head of the forces of the empire.

6. The Huns, under Attila, made an irruption into Gaul, A. D. 451. Ætius entered into an alliance with the Visigoths, aided by whom he gained a great victory over Attila at Chalons, in the same year, and drove him beyond the frontiers of the province. But in the ensuing spring the Huns poured like a torrent into Italy, and laid waste the country.

7. The death of Attila, who fell a victim to intemperance, and the civil wars among his followers, delayed the utter ruin of the empire. But the murder of Ætius by the ungrateful Valentinian, and the unchecked ravages of the barbarians, rendered all the provinces miserable.

8. The Vandals, under Genseric, ravaged Africa and Sicily; the Goths, Burgundians, and Suevi had taken possession of Gaul and Spain, and the Britons were so oppressed by the Scots and Picts, that they were obliged to call in the Saxons to their assistance.

9. Valentinian was assassinated A. D. 455, by the patrician Maximus, whose wife he had grossly injured. Maximus immediately assumed the purple; but he was quickly disgusted with the cares of a throne, and wished to retire to private life. Being dissuaded from this by his friends, and his wife dying soon after, he compelled Eudoxia, the widow of Valentinian, to marry him. This woman in revenge, invited Genseric and the Vandals into Italy.

CHAPTER CXCI.

End of the Western Empire.

1. THE Vandal army besieged Rome, A. D. 455. A violent tumult arose in the city, and Maximus was killed. Rome was taken and plundered by Genseric, who carried off what had been left by the Goths. A ship was loaded with costly statues, the tiling of the capitol, which was of brass plated with gold, sacred vessels enriched with precious stones, and those which had been taken by Titus out of the temple of Jerusalem, all of which were lost with the vessel on its passage to Africa.

2. By the influence of Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, a Gaul of noble family, named Avitus, was made emperor. But he was soon deposed by Count Ricimer, the commander of the barbarian auxiliaries intrusted with the defence of Italy, and Marjorian put in his place.

3. This emperor was also dethroned by the soldiery, A. D. 461. Ricimer then chose Severus, one of his own adherents, to be nominal

invasion of the Huns under Attila? 7. Of the death of Attila and Ætius? 8. Of Genseric, the Vandals and Britons? 9. Of Valentinian and Maximus?

CXCI.—1. What of the siege of Rome by the Vandals? What became of the plunder of Rome? 2. What of Theodoric the Ostrogoth? Ricimer? Marjorian? 3. The

emperor, retaining all the power of the government in his own hands. But the superior strength of the Vandals compelled him to have recourse to the court of Constantinople for aid.

4. Leo, the Byzantine emperor, appointed Anthemius sovereign of the west, and sent a large armament against the Vandals in Africa. But this expedition was unsuccessful; Anthemius was put to death, and Olybrius elevated to the throne, A. D. 472.

5. Both this emperor and Ricimer died within a few months. Three sovereigns, Glycerius, Nepos, and Orestes, followed within two years. The latter was succeeded by Augustulus, the last Roman emperor of the west. This prince was dethroned, A. D. 476, by Odoacer, the chief of the Heruli, a German people.

6. He sent Augustulus into captivity at Naples, assigning him a pension for his support. The conqueror, then abolishing the name and office of emperor, took the title of King of Italy. Such was the end of the Roman empire in the west, although the descendants of Constantine continued to hold the sceptre of the east for nearly a thousand years longer.

7. This great catastrophe was accomplished by the operation of causes which had been slowly at work for many hundred years. The aggressive warfare of the early Romans, which had been constantly extending the frontiers of their dominion, was retaliated upon them in the fourth century by the barbarians, against whom they began their attacks.

8. The emperors could no longer defend the provinces which they still affected to rule; and they frequently saw, without regret, valiant enemies become their guests, and occupy the desert regions of their empire. The progress of luxury, and the decline of the military spirit, contributed to hasten the decay of the empire.

9. The north poured down upon it her flood of warriors. From the extremity of Scandinavia to the frontiers of China, nation after nation appeared, the new assailant pressing on its predecessor, crushing it, and marking its onward passage with blood and devastation. The calamities which afflicted the human race exceed, in extent of desolation, in number of victims, and in intensity of suffering, everything else that has been presented to our affrighted imagination.

10. We cannot calculate the millions of human beings that perished before the downfall of the Roman empire was accomplished. Yet its ruin was not caused by the barbarians; it had long been corroded by an internal ulcer. The decay of patriotism, the decline of military virtue, and the extinction of the national spirit, were more pernicious to Rome than the arms of Alaric or Attila.

Vandals? 4. Anthemius and Olybrius? 5. Who was the last Roman emperor of the west? When and by whom was he deposed? 6. What became of Augustulus? What title did Odoacer assume? 7. What causes led to the overthrow of the Roman empire? 8. What was the condition of the provinces? 9. What of the northern warriors? Of the calamities of this period? 10. What were the general causes of the fall of Rome?

CHAPTER CXII.

Literature and Eminent Men during the Third Period.

1. THE literature of the republic and that of the empire are not separated by any wide period of time, but their difference in spirit and taste may be easily distinguished. Although Cicero died during the lifetime of Augustus, his genius breathes only the spirit of the republic; and though Virgil and Horace were born citizens of the commonwealth, their writings bear the character of monarchical influence.

2. The Augustan age has become proverbial in the history of letters. Never was there a time in which men of learning and talents were so rewarded and encouraged by statesmen, politicians, and generals, as that which grateful posterity has stamped with the name of Augustus.

3. Among the various arts to which this emperor resorted to beguile the hearts of his people, and perhaps to render them forgetful of their former freedom, the most remarkable was the encouragement which he extended to learning, and the patronage he so liberally bestowed on all by whom it was cultivated. From infancy everything had contributed to give him a relish for learning, and a respect for the learned.

4. After being firmly established, without a competitor in the empire, Augustus continued to pursue his private studies with unremitting assiduity. When he read a Greek or Latin author, he dwelt chiefly on what might be a lesson or example in the administration of public affairs, or in his own private conduct.

5. His literary taste appears from the multitude of his Greek secretaries, his superintendents for the charge of his collection of statues and pictures, his copyists and librarians. When unable to sleep at night, he had a reader or story-teller, like the oriental monarchs, who sat by him, and he often continued listening till he dropped asleep.

6. Among other embellishments which he bestowed on the city of Rome, were two public libraries; the one called the Octavian, which stood in the portico of Octavia; and the other on Mount Palatine, near the temple of Apollo. From his own share of the spoils of the conquered towns in Dalmatia, he erected at the Palatine library a magnificent colonnade, with double rows of pillars, adorned with statues and paintings by the chief Greek masters.

7. This structure was open below, but above it comprehended a large and curious library, with retiring-rooms for private reading, public halls for recitation, schools for teaching, and, in short, every allurement and aid to study. Around were delightful walks, fitted for exercise or contemplation, some under shade, and others exposed

CXII. — 1. What is said of the literature of the republic and that of the empire? 2. Of the Augustan age? 3. Of the patronage of literature by Augustus? 4. Of his own studies? 5. Of his taste? 6, 7. His libraries? 8. Education? 9—12 What of the respect paid by Augustus to literature?

o the sun, for summer or winter. A colossal statue of Apollo, in bronze, of Tuscan workmanship, presided as the genius of the place.

8. Augustus likewise provided means for the careful education of the Roman youth. On literary men in general he bestowed not only liberal gifts of money, but that attentive and respectful regard which they all desire, and which, by raising their station in society, animates their exertions.

9. The commencement of the political career of Augustus had indeed been somewhat inauspicious to the rising poets of his country. Virgil, Tibullus, and Propertius, all mourn the losses they had suffered during the reign of the triumvirate. But Virgil had no sooner displayed his genius, than his lands were restored, while to other poets crowns were assigned or statues erected.

10. At the very close of his life, when incapable of attention to public business, Augustus was carried in his litter to Præneste, Tibur, or Baiæ, through beautiful alleys opening to the sea, or among odoriferous groves, planted by himself with myrtles and laurels, the shade of which was then believed to be conducive to health. On these journeys he read the works of the poets whose genius had been fostered by him, and he was constantly attended by philosophers, in whose conversation he found his chief solace.

11. Even on his death-bed, at Nola, he passed his time in philosophic conversations on the vanity and emptiness of all human affairs. Augustus was besides an excellent judge of composition, and a true critic in poetry, so that his patronage was never misplaced or lavished on those whose writings might have tended to corrupt rather than improve the taste and learning of the age.

CHAPTER CXCHII.

Virgil. — Horace. — Ovid. — Tibullus. — Propertius.

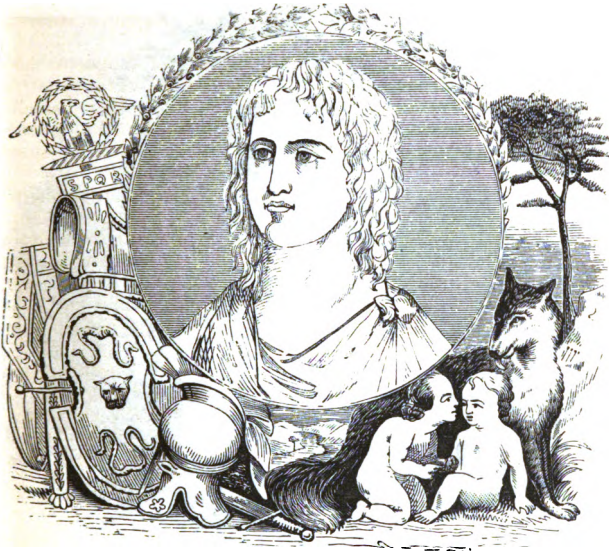
1. THE greatest poet of the Augustan age was Virgil. He was born in the village of Andes, now called Pietola, near Mantua, B. C. 70. At an early age he studied at Cremona, but his education was chiefly obtained at Naples. He was deprived of his paternal farm by one of the soldiers on the conquering side during the triumvirate, but recovered it by the favor of Mæcenas and Augustus.

2. When his poetical genius became known, he was honored with the friendship of the emperor, and all the eminent men at his court. He visited Athens late in life, but ill health compelled him soon to return to Italy, and he died a few days after landing, at Brundisium, B. C. 19. He was buried by his own request at Naples, and his tomb is still shown to travellers on the hill of Posilippo.

3. Virgil's great epic poem, the *Æneid*, is in many material points an imitation of Homer; it is nevertheless a work of genius and

CXCHII. — 1, 2 What of the life of Virgil? 3. His *Æneid*? 4. His *Georgics*? 5, 6, 7 of Horace? 8, 9, 10. Of Ovid? 11. Tibullus? 12. Propertius?

refined taste. His diction is more finished, and better suited to a highly cultivated age, than that of his great master, though the latter far surpasses him in invention and sublimity of thought.



Virgil.

4. Virgil also wrote four books of *Georgics*, which treat of agriculture, the planting of trees, the training of animals, and the keeping of bees. He likewise composed pastorals, in which he imitated Theocritus, the Sicilian poet. Throughout all his writings, the style and versification of Virgil exhibit the highest degree of excellence.

5. Horace is generally regarded as ranking next to Virgil. He was born at Venusia, in Apulia, B. C. 65. He went to Rome at an early age for his education, and at twenty-one visited Athens to complete his studies. When Brutus and Cassius attempted to restore the republic, Horace, with others of the Roman youth then studying in Greece, joined their standard.

6. He was at the battle of Philippi, and candidly confesses, in one of his poems, that he threw away his shield and ran with his defeated comrades. Virgil was a kind friend, and recommended him to notice at Rome. He was admitted to the society of Augustus, and the chief men of his court.

7. Horace has acquired his chief fame by his lyrical effusions. In variety and versatility of talent, his lyric genius is unrivalled. Elegance and justness of thought, and felicity of expression, are his

main characteristics. He wrote also satires and epistles in verse, which display a noble earnestness seasoned with the most refined



Horace.

pleasantry and humor. The style of Horace is inimitable, and bids defiance to all attempts at translation; for this reason his works appear flat and tasteless when they are read in another language.

8. Ovid was born at Sulmo, B. C. 43. In early youth he was carried to Rome by his father to be educated for the law, but his taste for poetry and literature prevailed over all other inclinations. He visited Athens, and the chief cities of Asia Minor. After settling himself at Rome, he devoted his time to the muses, and became a favorite with the chief men of the time.

9. At the age of fifty-one, Augustus suddenly banished him to Tomi, on the Euxine Sea, a wild, barbarous, and distant corner of the empire. The cause of this proceeding has never been discovered, but has led to much controversy among modern scholars. Ovid betrayed much weakness of character under his misfortune, and employed all the arts of entreaty and adulation to induce the emperor to recall him, but in vain. Tiberius was equally inexorable, after the death of Augustus, and Ovid died in exile.

10. Ovid is distinguished as a poet by a very fertile imagination, a lively, blooming wit, and a luxuriance of thought and expression; the latter qualities, however, are often carried to excess. His largest and

most beautiful poem is the *Metamorphoses*, or mythical transformations. The subjects of this were derived from Greek writings which are now lost; and Ovid's work is thus highly valuable as a record of ancient mythology. He also wrote elegiac, didactic, and other poems.

11. Tibullus was born about B. C. 30. According to Quintilian, the Roman critic, he is entitled to the first rank among the Latin elegiac poets. He combines soft, tender feelings, with a noble and accurate expression. His invention is rich, and not disfigured with unnatural ornaments. He wrote four books of elegies.

12. Propertius was born B. C. 15. He was the friend of Virgil, Ovid, and Tibullus. His elegies, consisting also of four books, exhibit rich poetical expression and correctness of style.

CHAPTER CXCIV.

Livy.—Character of the Augustan Age.

1. Of the prose writers of the Augustan age, the most remarkable is Livy, who was born at Padua, B. C. 58. The greater part of his early life was spent at Rome, where he devoted twenty years to the composition of his magnificent work, the *History of Rome*, from the foundation of the city to his own time. This performance gained him so high a reputation, even in his own lifetime, that a story is told of a person who travelled from Cadiz, in Spain, to Rome, only to see the great historian.

2. Of the hundred and forty books of Livy's history, only thirty-five remain at the present day. The loss of the remainder of this invaluable work is chiefly to be ascribed to Pope Gregory I., who ordered every copy to be burned that could be found, because the history contained stories of pagan miracles.

3. Livy's great excellence is his masterly style, which surpasses that of any other historian for clearness, liveliness, and finished elegance. Every reader has been charmed with the spirit and beauty of his narrative, the eloquence of his harangues, and the picturesque touches with which his descriptions are set off.

4. Livy has been taxed with credulity, because he relates the prodigies and portents which he found recorded in the old annals, and which we know to be fabulous. But it must be borne in mind that the historian introduces these things into his work as characteristics of the age, and with a warning to the reader that he does not vouch for the truth of all he writes.

5. The preceding catalogue comprises but a portion of the names of eminent writers which might be mentioned as adorning the Augustan period of Roman literature. In this auspicious age, which terminated the rancor of civil war, and restored peace to Rome, with the

CXCIV. — 1. What of Livy? 2. How much of his history is lost? 3, 4. What is its character 5, 6, 7. What was the state of literature and learned men at Rome in the

enjoyments of society, the example of a few great poets was calculated to rouse emulation in all. One bard caught fire from the genius of another, and as everything contributed to spread and promote the flame, the national spirit of poetry became everywhere triumphant.

6. While devoting their talents to the cultivation of the same department of literature, so far were these illustrious writers from being tainted with the jealousy which has so often infected men of learning and genius, that they not only passed their lives in habits of the strictest friendship, but felt and expressed the sincerest admiration of each other's literary productions.

7. Their example extended to their contemporaries, and humanized and improved the temper of the age. No class of works produced at one period, ever won so strongly the admiration of mankind as those of the Augustan age. The glories of the age of Pericles, in Greece, did not outshine the blaze of poetic genius which illumined the court of Augustus.

8. If the Greeks gave the first impulse to poetry, the Romans engraved the traces of its progress deeper on the world; for when Europe first awoke from its long trance of barbarism and ignorance, the works of Roman genius alone were accessible to imitation.

9. Hence it is on the classical models of the Augustan age that the most beautiful portions of modern poetry have been formed; and there is scarcely a poetical work of eminence in which we may not discover traces of their sentiments, their character, their imagery, or their diction.

10. We meet with no Latin writer on philosophical subjects in the Augustan age. The language was not well adapted to philosophical purposes. The Romans had been engaged for seven hundred years in wars and political commotions, which wholly engrossed their thoughts. Hence their language became, like their ideas, copious in all that related to the operations of war or politics, and well suited to the purposes of history or popular eloquence.

11. But the Romans had no precise terms for metaphysical ideas, nor a sufficient number of subjects in their minds for philosophical illustration. There were, besides, so many Greek schools of philosophy that the Romans had little motive to invent new systems, since every one might find, in the doctrines of some sect or other, tenets which could be sufficiently accommodated to his own taste and situation.

12. The high-born youth of Rome frequented the schools of Athens, Rhodes and Alexandria, to learn rhetoric and philosophy. The Greek philosophers were likewise patronized at Rome; the respect which Augustus paid to these sages was a politic measure and highly popular among his subjects.

Augustan age? 8. What of Greek and Roman genius? 9. What influences had the literature of the Augustan age? 10, 11. What of Latin philosophical writers? 12. Where were the noble Roman youth educated?

CHAPTER CXCV.

Decline and Extinction of Roman Literature.

1. AFTER the Augustan age, Roman literature began very sensibly to decline from its height of glory and perfection. From the concurrence of many causes, this decay was more rapid than its former progress and improvement had been. Among these causes were the establishment of despotism, the little encouragement given to literature by most of the emperors succeeding Augustus, the great increase of luxury, and consequent degeneracy of manners.

2. The changes in the moral and political condition of Rome paralyzed the nobler motives which had stimulated the citizens. Pure taste and delicate sensibility were gradually lost; gaudy ornament was admired rather than real beauty; affectation was substituted for nature, and the subtleties of sophistry for true philosophy.

*Tullius.*

3. Finally, the invasions of the barbarians, the frequent internal commotions, the conflict of Christianity with pagan superstition, the

CXCV.—1. When did Roman literature decline? 2, 3. What were the causes? 4, 5, 6. What of Tacitus? 7. Quintus Curtius? 8. Florus?

removal of the seat of government to Constantinople, and the division of the empire, consummated the fall of Roman literature.

4. Among the names deserving of mention during this latter period, the most prominent is that of Tacitus. He was born about A. D. 50, at Interamna, in Italy, but received his education at Massilia, now Marseilles, in France. He began to rise in office under Vespasian, and gained some of the highest honors in the state. He was celebrated, while young, for his eloquence at the bar.

5. Tacitus wrote the Roman History, from the death of Nero to that of Domitian, and the Annals of Rome, from Augustus to Nero. Both of these works have come down to us in a mutilated state. He wrote also the Life of Agricola, and a Treatise on the Manners of the Germans, both of which have been preserved entire.

6. The writings of Tacitus are characterized by remarkable political acumen, a noble freedom of spirit, a judicious arrangement of circumstances in narrative, and very great richness of thought, together with the most condensed brevity of expression.

7. Quintus Curtius, of whom little is known, probably lived about the middle of the first century. He wrote a history of the achievements of Alexander the Great, a very interesting and agreeable work, but much inferior in style to Tacitus or Livy.

8. L. Annæus Florus, a native of Spain or Gaul, flourished about the beginning of the second century. He wrote an epitome of Roman History down to the time of Augustus. Suetonius, a grammarian, rhetorician, and lawyer of Rome, lived about the same time. His lives of the Twelve Cæsars have the merit of candid impartiality, and an easy and simple style.

CHAPTER CXCVI.

Later Roman Writers.

1. PLINY the Elder was born A. D. 23. In his twenty-second year he visited Africa, where he spent some time. He afterwards served in the army in Germany, practised law at Rome, and held the office of procurator in Spain. In the reign of Titus he was admiral of the Roman fleet at Misenum, and lost his life in the eruption of Vesuvius, as we have already related.

2. Pliny the Elder was one of the most learned of the Romans. He wrote a Natural History, which is a sort of encyclopædia, full of erudition, and one of the most remarkable monuments of ancient literature. According to his own statement, it is a compilation drawn from nearly two thousand five hundred authors, the greater number of which are now lost.

3. Pliny the Younger, nephew of the preceding, was born about A. D. 60. He studied eloquence under Quintilian, and acquired great celebrity and influence at Rome, as a judicial orator. Under the emperor Trajan, he was sent to govern Bithynia and Pontus, from

whence he wrote his interesting epistle to Trajan respecting the persecution of the Christians.



Pliny the Elder.

4. He wrote rhetorical and epistolary works; the former are lost, but the latter remain. Pliny's Letters possess much merit, both in matter and style, and may be considered models of epistolary writing.

5. Quintilian was born in Spain, about the same time with the younger Pliny. He was brought to Rome in his infancy, and was for many years an eminent teacher of rhetoric in that city. He wrote a work entitled the Institutes of Oratory, being a scheme of education to form a perfect speaker. It is written with much talent and judgment, and is highly valuable as informing us respecting the manner of education in the Roman schools of rhetoric.

6. Seneca was born at Corduba, now Cordova, in Spain, A. D. 3, and after many vicissitudes became the instructor of the emperor Nero, at Rome, by whom he was sentenced to death on a charge of being concerned in a conspiracy. Seneca was allowed the privilege of choosing the manner of his death, and selected that of opening his veins; but as the blood did not readily flow, he took poison. He wrote tragedies, epistles, and philosophical works. His style is cen-

CXCVI. — 1, 2. Pliny the Elder? 3, 4. Pliny the Younger? 5. Quintilian? 6. Seneca? 7, 8. Lucan? 9. Persius? 10. Juvenal? 11. Claudian?

sured as marked by affectation, and abounding with sententious an-
'rthesis.



Seneca.

7. Lucan was also born at Corduba, A. D. 38. He received his education at Rome and Athens. Nero bestowed upon him the offices of quæstor and augur ; but Lucan, having imprudently become a competitor with the emperor in a poetical contest, excited the jealousy of that stern tyrant, and this probably caused Lucan to take part in a conspiracy against him.

8. Nero condemned him to die, with the same privilege that he granted to Seneca. Lucan wrote an epic poem entitled the *Pharsalia*, the subject of which is the civil wars between Cæsar and Pompey. It is historical rather than epic, too strictly limited to facts, but it contains excellent delineations of character, and finely wrought speeches.

9. Persius was born A. D. 50, and died in his twenty-eighth year. He wrote satires, which are remarkable as containing earnest and severe animadversions on the prevailing corruption of morals.

10. Juvenal was born A. D. 38, and lived to an advanced age, dying in a sort of exile, while holding a military command in Egypt. He wrote satires, in which he inveighs against the vices and follies of the times with a noble and animated spirit, but with too much freedom of language.

11. Claudian may be regarded as the last of the ancient Roman

poets. He was born about A. D. 365, at Alexandria, in Egypt, where he was educated. He lived for a time at Rome, and at Milan, which was then the seat of the western empire. He enjoyed the patronage of Stilicho, the guardian and minister of the emperor Honorius.

12. Claudian wrote panegyric poems, epics, satires, epigrams, &c. His works show great genius and poetic ability; but his thoughts, images, and expressions, bear the marks of the artificial and unnatural taste prevalent in his age.

CHAPTER CXCVII.

Religion of the Romans.



Jupiter and his Court.

1. THE Roman religion was founded on the mythological system of the Greeks. A plurality of deities superintending human concerns formed the prevailing creed. All these had priests, ministers, sacrifices and oblations.

2. The *augurs* were considered as an important and necessary part of the religious establishment. Each tribe had one of these pretended prophets, who announced the will of the gods with regard to any future enterprise, from an observance of the flight or the noise of birds, from the feeding of poultry, the movement of beasts, &c.

3. The high priest and his associates not only regulated the public worship, but acted as judges in all cases which had reference to religion. A remarkable order of priests was established in the reign of Numa. When a pestilence had made furious ravages in Rome, a

brazen buckler was produced, which the king pretended had been sent from heaven to indicate the divine will for the cessation of the disease.

4. *Nuina* ordered eleven others to be made exactly in the same form, that any one who might profanely wish to steal the sacred shield might not be able to distinguish it from the rest. These were consigned to the care of twelve priests, called *Salii*, who occasionally carried the bucklers about Rome, singing as they passed. Being considered as the priests of Mars, the *Salii* were highly respected by the warlike Romans.

5. The *Corybantes*, or priests of *Cybele*, were introduced at a much later period. These were *Phrygians*, who danced in armor, shouting, howling, and playing on a variety of instruments. This establishment was recommended by the *Sibylline oracles*, to which the Romans, from the time of *Tarquin the Proud*, paid a reverential regard.



Sacrifice

6. *Cybele* was worshipped at Rome under the name of *Vesta*. She had six priestesses, called *Vestal Virgins*, who guarded a fire kept constantly burning, called the *Vestal fire*. This flame was supposed to be mysteriously connected with the origin of all things. The *Vestal Virgins* were treated with great reverence by the people, and in imploring pardon their intercession was of peculiar efficacy.

7. They did not live in seclusion, like the nuns of monkish times, but were allowed to appear in public, and even to be present at the sports and games. When one of them died, it was so difficult to supply her place, that the high priest was generally obliged to seize

CXCVII. — 1. What was the foundation of the Roman religion? 2. The augurs? 3. The high priest? 4. The *Salii*? 5. *Corybantes*? 6. *Cybele*? 7, 8. *vestals*?

upon some female by violence, and compel her to assume the office of a Vestal.

8. This repugnance arose principally from the dreadful punishment which followed a violation of the Vestal's vow of chastity. The unfortunate delinquent was buried alive for her offence; but it does not appear that many suffered during a long succession of ages

CHAPTER CXCVIII.

Roman Festivals.

1. Of the festivals which were periodically solemnized by the Romans, the Lupercalia and the Saturnalia were the most remarkable. The Luperci, or priests of Pan, were the earliest sacerdotal order in the Roman state.



Priest, Altar, and Vestal Virgins.

2. They sacrificed white goats in the temple of the rustic god, smearing the face of two boys of noble birth with the blood of these animals, and then wiping off the stains with wool dipped in milk. The boys, furnished with thongs from the skins of the victims, ran about the streets lashing the young women, who thought it a special favor to receive the blows.

3. The festival of the Saturnalia did not at first extend beyond one day, but Augustus gratified the people with two additional days of sport and festivity. Universal joy and harmony prevailed during this

CXCVIII. — 1. What of the Lupercalia? 2. Sacrifices? 3, 4. The Saturnalia? 5. The Lures? 6. The secular games? 7. The centennial games?

festival, in commemoration of the peaceful and happy age in which Saturn flourished.

4. No serious business was allowed, but all kinds of amusement and indulgence marked this period of license. A distinguished feature of the festival was the custom which elevated the lowest servants to a temporary equality with their masters, who patiently bore every freedom of remark from their menials, and even submitted to the keenest sarcasms.

5. Among the sacred games, some were as ancient as the reign of Romulus. Some of them consisted of rustic sports, during which the figures of the *Lares*, or household gods, were crowned with flowers. Others comprised horse-racing, wrestling, leaping, shooting the javelin, and various other trials of robust and dexterous superiority.

6. The secular games were intended to recur once in a century, but the exact time was not strictly regarded. In one of the Sibylline volumes it was declared, in the assumed spirit of prophecy, that if the Romans would honor the principal deities with splendid spectacles and games at the commencement of every century, their dominion would be remarkably extensive and permanent.

7. In consequence of this flattering intimation, the centurial games were instituted. At this festival the blood of victims flowed on some altars, and the produce of the earth more innocently graced others. Hymns were sung by matrons, boys and girls; and sports of various kinds continued during three days.

CHAPTER CXCIX.

The Circus. — Amphitheatre. — Gladiators.

1. THE games which enlivened the solemn festivals were exhibited at other times in the circus. Among these were chariot races and combats of wild beasts, both of which were viewed with great transport by the Romans. The beasts fought with each other, or with men, either criminals or mercenaries.

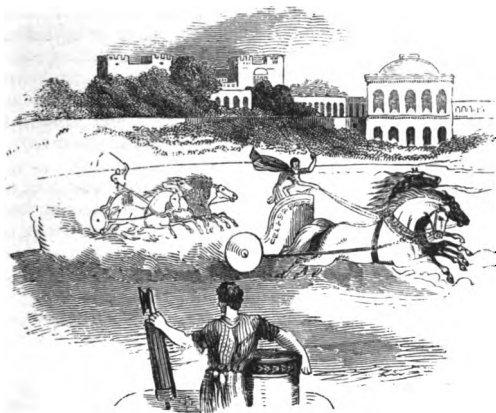
2. Julius Cæsar gratified the people with a battle between five hundred men and twenty elephants. On another occasion he exhibited a thousand combatants on horseback and on foot, against twenty elephants, each with a tower on his back containing sixty warriors.

3. When the Romans had acquired some degree of naval skill, they added sea-fights to their other amusements. An extensive edifice surrounded a channel sufficiently capacious for the evolutions of a considerable number of galleys. Sometimes the exhibition was a mere trial of speed; at other times they had regular naval engagements, in which blood was shed for the gratification of the unfeeling spectators.

4. Nothing can more strongly evince that brutality which, even in

CXCIX. — 1. What of the circus? 2. Of Julius Cæsar's exhibitions? 3. Of sea-fights? 4.—8. Of gladiators?

the progress of refinement, never deserted the Roman character, than the institution and continuance of gladiatorial combats. Such exhibitions could only please a people who had a strong tincture of ferocity



Roman Chariot Race.

5. It has been supposed that the custom of killing prisoners or slaves at the funerals of princes and heroes, or of compelling them to



Contest with Wild Beasts.

fight each other, gave rise to the barbarous practice of gladiatorial

combats. But in all probability the fondness of the Romans for war was the main cause.

6. Two citizens, of the name of Brutus, are mentioned as the first who exhibited gladiators in Rome; this was done at the funeral of their father. The example thus set was followed both by citizens and magistrates. The vanquished combatants did not always lose their lives, for the people would sometimes interfere in their behalf.

7. It was at first customary to employ criminals or slaves on these occasions; in the latter case, even trivial offences were deemed sufficient to justify an exposure of a fellow-creature to the risk of death. Afterwards, citizens who had not committed any crime, and who wished to signalize their courage, were induced to enter the lists, and regular schools of gladiators were formed.

8. The gladiators did not all fight in the same mode, or with the same weapons. Some were completely armed; others had only a trident and a net for entangling antagonists. Liberty was the usual reward of a slave who triumphed. A freeman received a pecuniary recompense. These combats were sometimes introduced at social entertainments, to enliven the festivities. Guests who could be thus amused may be thought only one degree above cannibals.

CHAPTER CC.

Private Amusements of the Romans.

1. THE private amusements of the Romans are not unworthy of notice. They not only display the character of the nation in many instances, but without a knowledge of them, many passages in ancient authors would be unintelligible.

2. Various modes of playing with ball are mentioned; one depended on the triangular position of three persons who sent the ball to each other, deriding, as the loser, the first who let it fall. The quoit was frequently thrown for private diversion; and not only boys, but young men, were fond of playing with a hoop furnished with rings.

3. A game resembling chess, and requiring much skill, was also played. The Romans were particularly fond of games of hazard. Dice were shaken and thrown out of a long box, as in modern times Augustus was much addicted to this amusement, although it was prohibited by law.

4. The manners of the early Romans were marked with simplicity. Not being ashamed either of their sentiments or their conduct, they avoided, as useless and degrading, all artifice and dissimulation. They were attentive to decorum and respectful to their superiors, but not servilely submissive. They were not absolutely destitute of friendship, but they had neither warmth of attachment nor tenderness of sympathy.

CC. — 1. What of the private amusements of the Romans? 2. Of playing ball and quoit? 3. Chess? 4. Of early Roman manners? 5, 6. Of paternal relations, &c.]

5. In their paternal relations, they were not so kind and acquiescent as they were stern and haughty. In the character of husband and master, they were disposed to be arbitrary and impetuous. That hardihood which was generated by their political zeal gradually entered into their social composition, and marked their portrait with harsh lines.

6. This rigidity of character was preserved for ages, and it was communicated even to the women, who were thus in a great measure divested of that softness which ought to distinguish the sex

CHAPTER CCI.

Roman Architecture.



Roman Country House, Farmer, &c.

1. THE architectural art was ably exercised by the Romans, even in the infancy of their state. They were indebted for their early skill in this art to the Etrurians. Their original temples were crowned with cupolas, for they appear to have been fond of both circular and elliptical forms.

2. The first walls of Rome were chiefly of earth, but the elder Tarquin began the erection of a wall of stone, which was completed by Tullus, who added to the work battlements and a fosse.

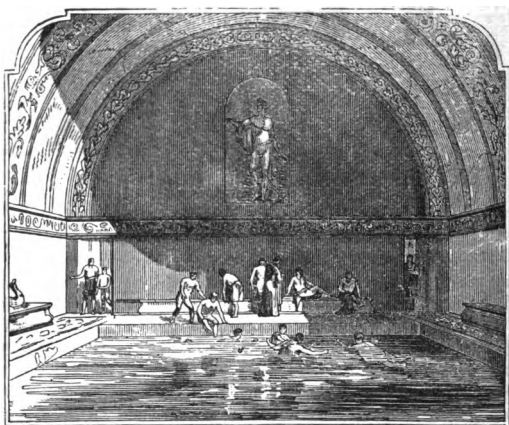
3. Tarquin the Proud finished the capitol, of which his father was the founder, and to both princes is ascribed the formation of the *cloaca*, or drains of the city. These were so skilfully and substantially constructed as to excite the astonishment of succeeding ages.

4. The original Capitoline temple was not very large or magnificent, but when it had been destroyed by fire, Sulla rebuilt it in great splendor, and embellished it with beautiful columns brought from Athens. The Pantheon and other structures we have already described.

5. Roman skill and industry were eminently conspicuous in the aqueducts. For above four hundred years the inhabitants were content with the water of the Tiber, and of wells and springs; but as a more copious supply was required when the city became very large and populous, Appius Claudius devised means for the conveyance of water from the river Anio.

6. A course of strong brick-work or stone, arched at the top, covered a canal, which, notwithstanding all inequalities of ground, regularly proceeded to the city. After the success of this experiment had been established, larger aqueducts were built, some of them with two channels, one over the other. Agrippa constructed one, profusely adorned with statues and other embellishments.

7. The Romans particularly attended to the firmness and durability of their roads, and in these conveniences they surpassed all other people, ancient and modern. The Roman roads were frequently paved with flint, and cemented with as much care as the walls of buildings. Pebbles were interspersed with old fragments of masonry, and courses of brick and stone were regularly introduced with an accompaniment of the best mortar. The Roman bricks were very strong and durable.



Roman Bath.

8. The edifices designed for public baths were of extraordinary size and magnificence. They were built among extensive gardens

3. Tarquin? 4. Capitoline temple? 5, 6. Aqueducts? 7. Roads? 8. Baths? 9. Of Caracalla? 10. Of Dioclesian?

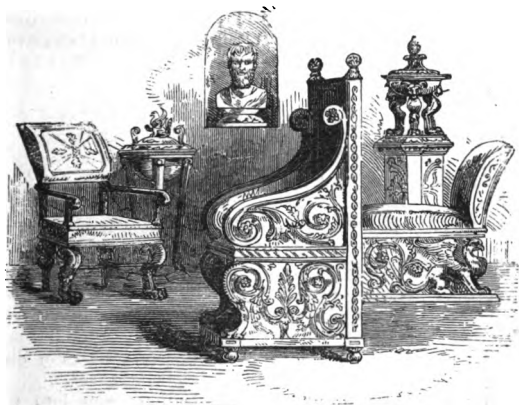
and walks, and were surrounded by porticoes. The main building contained spacious halls for swimming and bathing; others for various athletic exercises; others for the declamations of poets, and the lectures of philosophers; in a word, for every species of polite and manly amusement.

9. Architecture, sculpture and painting, exhausted their refinements on these establishments, which, for their vast extent, were compared to cities. The baths of Caracalla were ornamented with two hundred pillars and sixteen hundred seats of marble. Three thousand persons could be seated in them at one time.

10. The baths of Dioclesian surpassed all the others in size and sumptuousness of decoration. One of its halls forms at present the church of the Carthusians, which is among the largest and most magnificent of modern Rome.

CHAPTER CCII.

Sculpture and Painting among the Romans.



Roman Chairs.

1. SCULPTURE was introduced at Rome from Etruria, at a very early period; but for a long time only statues of the gods were formed, and these were merely of wood or clay. Representations of warriors and patriots were afterwards exhibited, but in the fabrication of these figures the Romans were unskilful.

2. The first brazen statue at Rome was set up in the temple of

Ceres, and was paid for out of the property of Cassius, who was condemned to death for aiming at arbitrary power.

3. The vanity of this aspiring citizen prompted him to display his own image in front of the altar of Vesta; but the censors would not suffer it to remain, and they ordained that no statue of a citizen, however illustrious, should be erected by private gratitude or respect. But this restriction was afterwards removed, and Rome abounded in statues.

4. The Romans made some attempts in painting, but with no very splendid success. A citizen of the name of Fabius derived the appellation of *pictor*, or "painter," from his performances in this department of the fine arts, before the Punic wars; but this is all we know of his skill.

5. Valerius Messala made a public exhibition of the picture of a battle in which he had defeated the Carthaginians, but the name of the artist is not stated. Scipio Asiaticus, with equal ostentation, displayed in the capitol a pictorial representation of his victories over Antiochus. And Lucius Mancinus, by pointing out to the admiring citizens the beauties of a picture relating to his exploits, obtained the consulate.

6. When the subjugation of the Grecian states had excited a general taste for refined works of art, many of the Romans imitated those productions which they could not excel. Julius Cæsar expended great sums in purchasing pictures of the old Greek masters. Augustus was a patron of the art; and portrait painters in his time seem to have been specially encouraged.

CHAPTER CCIII.

Manners and Dress of the Romans.

1. THE Romans continued to be a temperate and frugal people till their armies penetrated into Asia. After the overthrow of Antiochus, the varied pleasures and dissolute indulgences of Ionia, Lydia and Syria, allured the stern and hardy conquerors to imitation, and from this period successive relaxations of the ancient system of discipline and manners were introduced.

2. Every species of voluptuous gratification crept into practice. But luxury did not reach its full height, nor did the decline of morals proceed to the utmost excess of depravity, before the death of Augustus, whose censorial authority and powerful influence checked for a time the progress of degeneracy.

3. That prince was not indeed a model of purity, but he attended with seeming anxiety to the preservation of correct morals. The majority of his successors were, in that respect, less vigilant. An

painting? 5. Valerius Messala and others? 6. How did the conquest of Greece affect the fine arts among the Romans?

CCIII. — 1, 2. What effect had the overthrow of Antiochus upon Roman manners?

innocent species of luxury was that which depended upon dress and personal ornament. The plainness of the ancient apparel gave way,



Roman Costumes, Armor, &c

after the establishment of connections with Asia, to a fondness for elegant attire among the higher classes.



Roman Lady, Private Citizen, Consul, Senator, Labores.

4. It does not appear that the earliest Romans were, as some have

2 When were manners most corrupt? 4. Of Roman dress? The toga? the pallium?

said, content with the skins of beasts for clothing. A woollen *toga* or gown, full for the rich, and scanty for the poor, soon became the distinctive dress of the nation, as was the *pallium*, or cloak, among the Greeks.

5. A tunic, which, like the gown, was sleeveless, afterwards came into use; it was at first short, like a waistcoat, but it was gradually lengthened. It subsequently received the addition of sleeves, and was fastened by a belt. That which the women wore, reached to the feet; with the men, it ended at the knee.

6. These garments were intended to be worn together, but the poor frequently had only the tunic. In the progress of refinement, females had three garments; the outer one was called *stola*, and was richly ornamented with embroidery and clasps of gold.

7. The senators were distinguished by a tunic which had broad studs or knobs worked into it; the knights had narrow studs, and the common people none at all. The kings wore a white robe, with a purple border, and protuberances of scarlet. The emperors in public used one entirely of purple. Triumphant generals wore a robe adorned with various representations in embroidery, resembling the work of the pencil; hence it was called *toga picta*.

8. Like the Greeks, the Romans were not accustomed to wear hats or caps; but at sacrifices, festivals and games, or in a long journey, many wore a woollen or leather cap. When a slave had been set free, he was allowed the constant use of the *pileus*, or Phrygian cap, as a mark of liberty.



Roman Lictor.

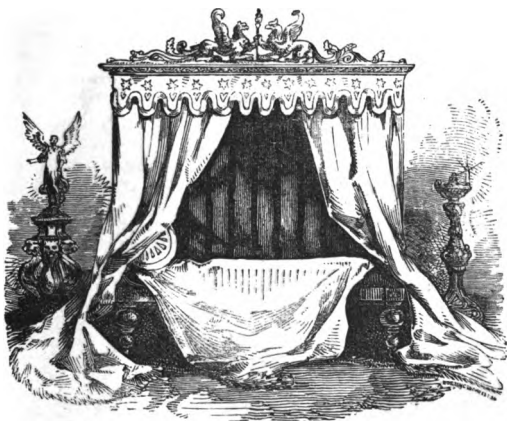
9. The ensigns of regal dignity were borrowed from the Etruscans, and consisted of a golden crown, a chair of ivory, a sceptre of the same material, surmounted by an eagle, a white robe, with purple embroidery, or borderings, and a body of twelve lictors, who went

5. The tunic? 6. Female dress? 7. Senatorial dress? King's, emperor's, and general's dress? 8. Of caps? 9. Of ensigns of royal dignity, lictors, &c.?

before the king, each carrying a bundle of rods with an axe in the middle. The use of the lictors was continued after the overthrow of the kingly government, and the bundle of rods, or *fascies*, has become emblematical of a republic.

CHAPTER CCIV.

Food and Drink of the Romans.



Roman Bed.

1. At the entertainments of early and frugal times, no other than the ordinary dress was used; but as luxury advanced, a peculiar habit, light and easy, was brought into use at convivial meetings. Sitting was the primitive posture at meals. Couches were afterwards introduced, first for the men only, and afterwards for both sexes.

2. The grand meal answered to our supper, and for this particularly, the guest-chambers or eating-halls were constructed. The table, being either quadrangular or rounded, had on each side three couches, each having three pillows on which to support the arm in reclining; nine persons were therefore accommodated at a table; the post of honor was the central place; all the guests reclined on the left arm.

3. At the supper of the rich, there were commonly three courses. The first consisted of eggs, salad, radishes, &c., to whet the appe-

time, with this they drank usually mead, or a mixture of honey. The second course formed the essential part of the meal. The third was the dessert, consisting of fruits, pastry and confectionary.

4. In social banquets it was customary to appoint a master of the feast, who seems to have been chosen by a throw of the dice. Healths were drank, the memory of the gods and heroes being usually honored in the first place. Social games or plays were practised, not only after but during the meal, between the different courses and dishes.

5. In the time of the republic, it was customary for a patron occasionally to invite all his clients to a common supper in his halls. Under the emperors, it became usual to give to the clients, instead of a supper, a small basket of food.



Feast of January. Ladies receiving Presents.

6. Wine was the beverage chiefly used by the Romans, and of this article they had innumerable varieties. Of the Italian wines, the most celebrated were the Falernian and the Massic. Of the foreign sorts, the Lesbian and Chian were preferred. Scarcely anything seems to have been more important to the wealthy Roman, in all his arrangements for domestic comfort, than to be well furnished with choice and approved wines.

7. Hence great attention was paid to the cultivation of the vine, even to the neglect of other branches of agriculture. The wine was usually kept in *amphoræ*, or earthen jars, which were ranged round the walls of the cellar, partly sunk in sand, each one having a mark to denote the name of the consul who was in office when the wine was made.

couches? 3. Suppers of the rich? 4. Social banquets? 5. Of a patron's dinner? 6, 7 Of Roman wines? 8. Of the wine-cellar of Diomedes?

8. The villa of Diomedes, in Pompeii, has a very large cellar, extending round and under the whole garden, and lighted and ventilated by port-holes from above. Some of the wine-jars still stand as they were packed and labelled more than seventeen hundred years ago.

CHAPTER CCV.

Marriage and Funeral Ceremonies of the Romans.



Roman Marriage.

1. **MARRIAGES** among the Romans were always preceded by a solemn affiancing or betrothment, which often took place many years before the wedding, and even during the childhood of the parties.

2. On the day of marriage the bride was adorned with a sort of veil, and a robe prepared for the occasion, which was bound around the waist by a marriage girdle. She was taken, as it were, forcibly, from the arms of her mother or nearest relative.

3. She carried a distaff in her hand, and was careful to step over, or be carried over, the threshold of both houses, as it was ominous to touch it with the feet. She was supported by two youths, one on each side; another preceded her with a lighted torch or flambeau, and sometimes a fourth followed, carrying, in a covered vase, the bride's furniture.

4. She bound the doorposts of her new residence with white woolen fillets, and anointed them with the fat of wolves. She then stepped upon a sheepskin spread before the entrance, and called aloud

for the bridegroom, who immediately came and offered her the key of the house, which she delivered over to the chief servant.

5. The husband and wife then touched fire and water, as a symbol of purity and nuptial fidelity. Music, singing and feasting followed and the husband, after supper, scattered nuts among the boys.



Funeral. — Procession by Torchlight.

6. When a Roman died, his body was exposed on a bier in the vestibule of the house for some days. During this time there were frequent and loud outcries, accompanied by the strongest expressions of grief. A branch of cypress or pine was usually fixed before the door of the house.

7. Children and youth were interred by night, with lighted torches, and without attendants; but adults by day, and with more or less ceremony, according to their rank. The funeral of a distinguished person was previously announced in the city by a herald.

8. In the procession, the musicians and women hired as mourners advanced first, uttering lamentations, and singing the funeral song. Next came those who bore the images of the ancestors of the deceased. Next the relatives, all in black. Then followed players, mimics and dancers, one of them imitating the words and actions of the deceased. After these came the corpse, supported by bearers, and followed by a numerous train of both sexes.

9. The place of burning or burial was always without the city. When the corpse was to be burnt, it was laid on the funeral pile, and sprinkled with spices, or anointed with oil; the nearest relatives then applied the torch, with averted faces.

10. Weapons, garments, and other things possessed by the deceased,

post? 5. Of fire and water? 6. Roman funerals? 7. Children's funerals? 8. The procession? 9, 10. Of burning and burial?

were thrown upon the pile, and when the whole was consumed, the embers were quenched with wine. The bones and ashes were afterwards collected and deposited in an urn, sometimes with a small phial of tears. The urn was solemnly deposited in the earth or a tomb.

CHAPTER CCVI.

Roman Military Art. — The Legion.



General and Soldiers

1. A ROMAN legion was drawn up in three ranks, called the *Hastati*, the *Principes*, and the *Triarii*. In addition to these were light troops, who detached themselves from the main body at the beginning of a battle, and skirmished with missile weapons.

2. The *Hastati* were young men in the flower of life, and occupying the front rank; the *Principes* were men in the full vigor of middle age, standing in the second line; the *Triarii* were veterans, constituting the rear rank. The legion was divided into *maniples*, or companies, each commanded by a centurion, and having its own standard, consisting of a silver eagle on a pole.

3. A legion consisted generally of about five thousand men. The weapons differed according to the rank of the soldier. The *velites*, or light troops, had a small, round shield, a javelin, and a helmet of leather. The *Hastati* had a large shield of wood, leather and iron, a short, but stiff and pointed sword, which was worn on the right

CCVI. — 1. How was a legion drawn up? 2. Of the *hastati*, the *principes*, and the *triarii*, and the *maniples*? 3. What was the number of men in a legion? What weapons

side, two javelins, an iron or brazen helmet, greaves for the legs, plated with iron, and a coat of mail, formed of metal or hide, worked over with little hooks of iron.



Roman Armor.

4. The *Principes* and *Triarii* used weapons of the same kind, except some difference in the spears and swords. The shield was marked with the name of the soldier, and the number of the legion and manipule to which he belonged; whoever returned from battle without his shield, forfeited his life.

5. The cavalry had weapons very similar to the last described. Horns and trumpets were the only instruments of martial music. No one could be a soldier under seventeen years of age. All between seventeen and forty-five were liable to serve; those above the latter age were exempted.

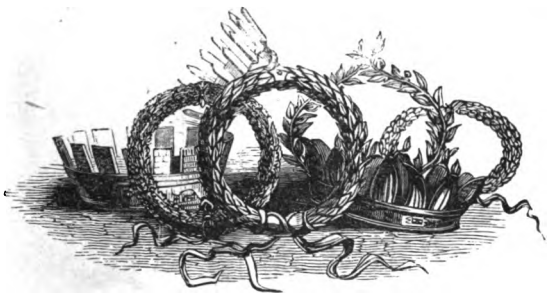
6. The regular term of service was sixteen years for the foot soldiers, and ten for cavalry. Persons of no property were not enrolled for service, because, having nothing to lose, they were not supposed to possess sufficient bravery and patriotism.

7. For three hundred years after the foundation of the city, the soldiers received no pay; afterwards a stipend was allowed them, of two bushels of wheat a month, and three ounces of brass a day; this pay was subsequently increased.

8. Various extraordinary rewards were given to those who distinguished themselves in war. Golden and gilded crowns were common, as the camp-crown for him who first entered the enemy's entrench-

were used? 5. Cavalry? Who were liable to serve in the army? 7. Of paying the soldiers? 8. Rewards, crowns, &c.?

ments, the mural crown for him who first scaled the walls of a city, the naval crown for capturing a ship of war; also wreaths and crowns formed of leaves and blossoms; as the civic crown of oak-leaves for



Civic Crowns.

rescuing a citizen from death or captivity; the obsidional crown, of grass, for delivering a besieged city; the triumphal crown, of laurel worn by a general at his triumph.

CHAPTER CCVII.

March and Encampment of a Roman Army. — The Navy.



Centurion.

1. THE order of march, when a Roman army moved to the field into the camp, was as follows. The light-armed went in advance

then followed the heavy-armed, foot and horse; then the pioneers; then the baggage of the general and his horses, guarded by cavalry; then the general himself; then the tribunes; after these followed the standards, the choice men of the army, the servants and drivers of beasts



Battering Engine.

2. In attacking fortified towns, battering rams were used. The soldiers were drawn up into a *testudo*, or tortoise; this was an arrangement in which they stood close together, raising their shields so as to form a compact covering over them, like the scales of a tortoise.

3. No part of the discipline was more admirable than the encampment. However fatigued the soldiers might be by a long march or a severe battle, the camp was regularly measured out and fortified by a ditch, before any one was allowed sleep or refreshment. It was an exact square of four hundred feet, with a rampart of earth, and stakes three feet high, surrounded by a ditch nine feet wide and seven deep.

4. Careful watch was kept during the night, and frequent picquets were sent out to guard against a surprise, and to see that the sentinels were vigilant. As the arrangements were the same in every camp, a soldier always knew his proper place, and if an alarm occurred, could easily find the rallying point of his division.

5. In the discipline of the Roman camp the soldiers were employed in various exercises, from which an army was called in Latin, *exercitus*. These included walking and running, completely armed, leaping, swimming, vaulting upon horses of wood, shooting the arrow, hurling the javelin, carrying weights, attacking the wooden image of a man as an enemy, &c.

6. It was essential to the comfort of a soldier that he should be able to walk or run in full armor, with perfect ease. On common marches he was obliged to carry, in addition to his arms, a load consisting of his provisions and customary utensils, amounting to sixty pounds weight.

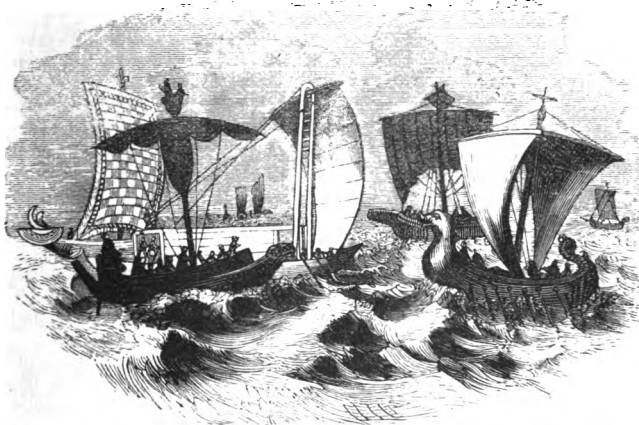
CCVII. — 1. How did a Roman army march? 2. Of attacks? 3. Encampment? 4. Watches? 5, 6. Exercises? 7, 8. Roman ships? 9. Ships of war? 10. Of naval battles?

7. The Roman ships were of three kinds, the war-galley, the transport, and the ship of burden. The first was propelled chiefly



War Galley.

by oars ; the second was often towed by the war-galley, and the third depended on her sails.



Roman Ships.

8. Ships of burden were commonly much inferior in size to modern
25*

urn merchant ships, although some are mentioned of vast length ; in the reign of Caligula, a great obelisk was carried from Egypt to Rome, in a ship which must have been of more than one thousand tons burden.

9. Ships of war had sometimes five rows of oars. Some had turrets for soldiers and warlike engines. Others had sharp prows covered with brass for the purpose of dashing against their enemies. The naval tactics of the ancients were very simple.

10. The ships came immediately to close action, and the battle became a contest between single vessels. It was on this account that the personal valor of the Romans proved more than a match for the naval skill of the Carthaginians, and enabled them to add the empire of the sea to that of the land.

CHAPTER CCVIII.

Roman Triumphs.



Triumphal Procession.

1. A ROMAN general who had gained a great battle, or conquered any considerable nation, was allowed the honors of a triumph. Of these there were two kinds, the lesser triumph, called an *ovation*, and the greater, called emphatically the triumph.

2. The ovation was granted for inferior services, as to a commander who had averted hostilities or dangers which had threatened the Roman state, or who had gained some important military advantage without inflicting a great loss upon the enemy. In this case the victorious general entered the city on foot, wearing a crown of myrtle.

CCVIII. — 1. What of triumphal honors? 2. The ovation? 3. The triumph? To

3. The triumph was granted to those who gained some very signal victory, which decided the fate of a long or dangerous war. In such instances the triumphing general was borne into the city in a military chariot, wearing a crown of laurel, and attended by an immense procession, exhibiting captives, spoils of war, &c.



Car of Triumph.

4. The following description, extracted from Plutarch, of the great triumph granted to Paullus Æmilius, for his glorious termination of the Macedonian war, will give the reader an adequate idea of the splendor displayed by the Romans on these festive occasions.

5. The people erected scaffolds in the forum and circus, and all other parts of the city where they could best behold the pomp. The spectators were clad in white garments; all the temples were open, and full of garlands and perfumes; the ways were cleared and cleansed by a great many officers, who drove away such as thronged the passage, or straggled up and down:

6. The triumph lasted three days; on the first, which was scarcely long enough for the sight, were to be seen the statues, pictures, and images of an extraordinary size, which were taken from the enemy, drawn upon seven hundred and fifty chariots.

7. On the second, was carried in a great many wagons, the fairest and richest armor of the Macedonians, both of brass and steel, all newly furnished and glittering; which, although piled up with the greatest art and order, yet seemed to be tumbled on heaps carelessly. and by chance; helmets were thrown on shields; coats of mail upon greaves; Cretan targets and Thracian bucklers, and quivers of arrows, lay huddled among the horses' bits; and through these appeared the points of naked swords, intermixed with long spears.

whom was it granted? 4. What of the triumph of Paullus Æmilius? 5. The spectators? 6. The triumph of the first day? 7. The second day? 8. Of the arms? 9. The

8. All these arms were tied together with such a just liberty, that they knocked against one another as they were drawn along, and made a harsh and terrible noise, so that the very spoils of the conquered could not be beheld without dread.

9. After these wagons loaded with armor, followed three thousand men, who carried the silver that was coined, in seven hundred and fifty vessels, each of which weighed three talents and was carried by four men. Others brought silver bowls, and goblets, and cups, all disposed in such order as to make the best show, and all valuable as well for their magnitude as the thickness of their engraved work.

10. On the third day, early in the morning, first came the trumpeters, who did not sound as they were wont in a procession or solemn entry, but such a charge as the Romans use when they encourage their soldiers to fight. Next followed young men, girt about with girdles curiously wrought, who led to the sacrifice one hundred and twenty stalled oxen, with their horns gilded, and their heads adorned with ribands and garlands, and with these were boys that carried dishes of silver and gold.

11. After these was brought the gold coin, which was divided into vessels that weighed three talents each, similar to those that contained the silver; they were in number fourscore, wanting three. These were followed by those that brought the consecrated bowl, which Æmilius caused to be made, that weighed ten talents, and was adorned with precious stones. Then were exposed to view the cups of Antigonus and Seleucus, and such as were made after the fashion invented by Thericles, and all the gold plate that was used at the table of Perseus.

12. Next to these came the chariot of Perseus, in which his armor was placed, and on that his diadem. After a little intermission the king's children were led captives, and with them a train of nurse-masters, and governors, who all wept, and stretched forth their hands to the spectators, and taught the little infants to beg and entreat their compassion.

13. There were two sons and a daughter of the king, who, by reason of their tender age, were altogether insensible of the greatness of their misery; which insensibility of their condition rendered it much more deplorable, insomuch that Perseus himself was scarcely regarded as he went along, whilst pity had fixed the eyes of the Romans upon the infants, and many of them could not forbear tears; all beheld the sight with a mixture of sorrow and joy until the children were past.

14. After his children and attendants, came Perseus himself, clad in black, and wearing slippers, after the fashion of his country; he looked like one altogether astonished, and deprived of reason, through the greatness of his misfortune. Next followed a great company of his friends and familiars, whose countenances were disfigured with grief, and who testified to all that beheld them, by their tears and their continual looking upon Perseus, that it was his hard fortune they so much lamented, and that they were regardless of their own.

armor, coins, &c. ? 10. The third day ? The sacrifices, &c. ? 11. The gold coin, &c. ? 12. The family of Perseus ? 13. His children ? 14. Of Perseus ? 15. The golden crowns and Æmilius ? 16. The army ?

15. After these were carried four hundred crowns of gold, sent from the cities by their respective ambassadors to Æmilius, as a reward due to his valor. Then he himself came, seated on a chariot magnificently adorned, (a man worthy to be beheld even without these ensigns of power,) clad in a garment of purple interwoven with gold, and with a laurel branch in his right hand.

16. All the army, in like manner, with boughs of laurel in their hands, and divided into bands and companies, followed the chariot of their commander; some singing odes, according to the usual custom, mingled with raillery; others, songs of triumph and the praises of Æmilius, who was admired and accounted happy by all men, yet unenvied by every one that was good.

MODERN ITALY

CHAPTER CCIX.

Odoacer. — Theodoric. — Belisarius.

1. **HARDLY** any period in the annals of the human race presents to the historical student a scene of greater confusion than the century which followed the overthrow of the Western Empire. The different hordes of barbarians, pursuing no definite plan, established separate monarchies in the dismembered provinces, engaged in sanguinary wars that had no object but plunder, and were too ignorant to form anything like a political system.

2. There is, consequently, a want of unity in the history of a time when nations ceased to have any fixed relations to each other; and the narrative must appear desultory and digressive, until some one state, rising into command, assumes such importance that the fate of all the rest may be connected with its destinies.

3. Odoacer, having assumed the title of king of Italy, fixed his capital at Ravenna, a city which at this time almost equalled Rome in magnificence. He distributed a portion of the conquered land among his soldiers, assigning them also the people upon it, who thus became the slaves of the conquerors. But as the peasantry of Italy had been in no better condition under their former masters, the change of government made little difference to them.

4. Odoacer and his Heruli, however, did not long enjoy their conquest. The Ostrogoths, who had established themselves in Noricum and Pannonia, soon invaded Italy under their king, Theodoric. Odoacer was defeated and killed, and Theodoric became king of Italy, where he reigned with great glory for thirty-five years.

5. During this period the Italians enjoyed more prosperity and

happiness than they had known for a long time previous. The cities were left in possession of their own laws, religion, and municipal government. They continued to choose their own magistrates, and their property was preserved untouched. Far from destroying what remained of the works of art with which the Romans had adorned every part of Italy, Theodoric established a fund for the repair of public buildings, and gave great encouragement to men of taste and talents.



Odoacer.

6. The reign of Theodoric seems to have been a golden age for the Italians, who also continued to enjoy a considerable share of prosperity under his successors. But the Byzantine emperor, Justinian, A. D. 535, sent his armies into Italy, under the command of Belisarius, the most renowned general of the age.

7. Italy was again desolated by war. Belisarius gained many great victories, and took possession of Rome. But he was recalled, in the midst of his successes, to take the command of an expedition against Persia, and his place was supplied by Narses, another great general, who completed the conquest which the former had begun.

8. The last Gothic king was slain in battle. Italy was once more under the dominion of the Cæsars. Narses was appointed governor,

history of this period? 3. Of Odoacer? 4. The Ostrogoths? 5. Of Italy during this period, under Theodoric? 6. Of Justinian? 7. Belisarius? 8. Narses?

with the title of Exarch, and fixed his residence at Ravenna. He exercised all the authority of a sovereign prince for about fifty years, when a new enemy appeared.

CHAPTER CCX.

The Lombards.

1. **THESE** were the Lombards, who came originally from the north of Germany. When they invaded Italy they were governed by a chief named Alboin, one of the greatest princes of his time, both as a warrior and a legislator.

2. He crossed the Alps with a powerful army, conquered, one by one, all the provinces in the north of Italy, and founded the new kingdom of Lombardy, which afterward comprised a considerable part of the middle and southern provinces.

3. Alboin selected for his capital the large fortified city of Pavia. He introduced the feudal system into his new dominions, by granting large fiefs to his chief warriors. These took the title of Dukes, and in time grew very powerful, ruling over their own domains as independent princes. Each built a strong castle for himself, and gave estates to his chief vassals, who were called Counts, and were bound to follow the standard of their lord in war.

4. In the mean time the popes, who were originally only the bishops of Rome, were gradually rising to a much higher degree of temporal power, in consequence of the progress of the Christian religion, which the Romans had contributed to spread over the greater part of Europe.

5. A schism took place between the Greek and the Latin church, and the officers of the Greek emperor attempting to enforce certain regulations in the city of Rome, the people rose in insurrection, threw off their dependence on the Byzantine empire, and established a new republic, placing the pope at their head.

6. Very soon afterward, the Lombards captured Ravenna, and put an end to the government of the exarchs. They then attempted to subject Rome to their dominion. In this emergency, the pope and his senate applied to Pepin, king of France, for his assistance. This was readily granted, as Pepin was very anxious that the pope should confirm his title to the throne of France, which he had just usurped.

7. Pepin, accompanied by his son, the renowned Charlemagne, led an army into Italy, and totally defeated the Lombards, from whom he took the exarchate of Ravenna, which he added to the see of Rome. This event took place about the middle of the eighth century, and had a great effect on the religion and government of Europe for many ages, as it was the beginning of that absolute power exer-

CCX. — 1. Who were the Lombards? 2. Of the kingdom of Lombardy? 3. Of Alboin and the feudal system? 4. The popes? 5. The schism in the church? 6. Of Pepin and the Lombards? 7. Of the victory of Pepin and Charlemagne in Italy? 8. Charlemagne's empire?

cised in after times over all sovereign princes and their dominions, by the Roman pontiff.

8. The victories of Pepin prepared the way for the overthrow of the Lombard monarchy, which was terminated by his successor. Charlemagne, the greatest conqueror of the age. He united in one vast empire, France, Germany, and nearly the whole of Italy. The last king of the Lombards was made prisoner, and sent with his wife and children into France, where they passed the remainder of their days in captivity.

CHAPTER CCXI.

Charlemagne. — Frederic Barbarossa.

1. AMONG the few states that preserved their independence during the dominion of the Lombards, was that of the Venetians, who, from a few poor fishermen, had become the most distinguished trading people in Europe. The wars had driven many wealthy families to take refuge on their little islands, which were then governed by a *doge*, or duke.

2. Their vessels made regular voyages to Constantinople, from whence they brought silks, spices and furs. They also made great profit by trading in slaves, whom they purchased in the Greek slave-markets and sold to the Saracens, of Africa.

3. Charlemagne was not only crowned king of the Lombard states, but was also declared emperor of the Romans, a title that had been extinct more than three hundred years. During his reign, the feudal system was carried to a much greater extent than it had been in the time of the Lombards. The whole country was filled with castles, in which the feudal lords resided.

4. After the death of Charlemagne, in 814, Italy continued to be governed by his successors, till 888, when it was detached from the Frankish empire, and became a separate kingdom. For seventy years it was independent, being governed by native sovereigns, elected by the nobles and clergy.

5. After this, the cities and states began to form themselves into republics, each governed by a duke and senators. The Saracens, in the mean time, made themselves masters of Sicily and the south of Italy. In 961 the German emperor was acknowledged as sovereign of Italy, and though he had very little authority here, he long retained a nominal dominion over the Italian states.

6. The emperors did not often visit their Italian dominions, unless called thither by an act of rebellion which threatened to subvert their authority. Sometimes a general parliament was held in the plains near Placentia, to which the emperor repaired, always with a power-

CCXI. — 1. Of the Venetians? 2. Their commerce? 3. Charlemagne's titles and the feudal system? 4. Of Italy after his death? 5. Of the independent republics of Italy? Of the Saracens? 6, 7 The emperors and their parliaments? 8. What were the most

ful army ; and here he received the homage of the dukes, and promulgated laws for the government of Italy.

7. This assembly was attended by the nobles, clergy, and magistrates of the cities, who were all required to take the oath of allegiance to the sovereign, which very few of them observed very strictly.

8. The most opulent cities at this time were Venice, Genoa and Pisa, all of which had a number of small states dependent on them, belonging to different counts, marquises, and lords of castles, who, during the civil wars, were glad to place themselves under the protection of more powerful states.

9. The number of these rapidly increased, for every city had now its own military force, was encompassed by a wall, and defended by a citadel or tower, to which the inhabitants could retire in case of emergency. Many of the nobles lived in castles on their own domains, and they had also their armies, composed of the numerous dependents who crowded their castle halls, and the peasants that dwelt on their lands.

10. Sentiments of republican freedom now arose among the Italians, and a desire to assert their independence of the German empire had become manifest, when Frederic Barbarossa was elected emperor, in 1152. The claims of the German monarchs to the sovereignty of Italy had continued, though the utmost military power of the empire was incompetent to enforce them. Frederic spent thirty-three years of his life in a costly, desolating, and unsuccessful war, to obtain the mastery over the Italian states.

11. He crossed the Alps six times with powerful armies, and although he committed dreadful ravages in this country, and totally destroyed the rich and powerful city of Milan, yet in the end he was defeated with ignominy, and forced to concede to the Italian states the right of independent self-government.

12. In the south of the peninsula the kingdom of Naples arose from small beginnings, under the Norman adventurers, in the eleventh century. A small band of these brave and enterprising warriors, on their way to the Holy Land, visited Amalfi about the year 1025.

13. They were ready for any enterprise which promised glory or wealth, and were consequently invited to engage in the wars then raging in Italy. Their success attracted other adventurers from Normandy, and their numbers so increased that they were soon enabled to become masters of a large portion of the south of Italy, including the city of Naples and its territories. Such was the foundation of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

opulent cities? 9. Of the nobles? 10. Of republican freedom? Of Frederic Barbarossa? 11. Of his wars? 12. The kingdom of Naples? 13. The Normans in Italy?

CHAPTER CCXII.

The Guelphs and Ghibellines.

1. ABOUT the close of the twelfth century arose the struggle between the Guelphs and Ghibellines, which disturbed the peace of Italy for a long series of years. These two parties were founded on the rival interests of the pope and the emperor of Germany.

2. No sooner were the Italians freed from a foreign enemy than their ancient intestine quarrels were renewed with more violence than ever. Yet the general state of Italy at this period, notwithstanding its internal troubles, is described as being far more prosperous than that of any other European nation.

3. The open country was well cultivated by an active, industrious peasantry, who labored for their own benefit, and lived in comfort, taking little or no part in the quarrels of the great. Rich vineyards, fine pastures, and abundant cornfields, were everywhere to be seen.

4. The great towns presented an appearance of wealth and elegance not to be found elsewhere. They were well paved, adorned with fine stone buildings, bridges, aqueducts, fountains, &c., and filled with handsome shops, plentifully stored with valuable merchandise, brought from the east by the merchants of Venice, Pisa, Genoa, and other commercial states.

5. Although the numerous Italian republics, of which there were not less than two hundred, had been left at liberty to govern themselves, the emperor of Germany was still the acknowledged sovereign of them all. He possessed the right of granting or taking away popular privileges.

6. This power was also claimed by the pope; and as both had their partisans, the whole country was drawn into the quarrel between the Guelphs and Ghibellines, the former taking sides with the pope, and the latter with the emperor. Among the Ghibellines were a great many nobles living in castles among the mountains, built in strong places.

7. Here they kept numerous bands of retainers, and exercised a sort of sovereignty over the surrounding country. Most of these nobles espoused the cause of the emperor, because they preferred to live under nominal subjection to a prince whose absence from the country left them at liberty to do as they pleased.

8. The inhabitants of the cities, on the other hand, were in general Guelphs, because they looked up to the pope to defend their rights from being usurped by the emperors. There were, however, many Ghibelline nobles, who, in consequence of not having castles strong enough to resist an attack, or from other causes, chose to live under the laws of the republics, and reside within the precincts of the towns.

CCXII. — 1. Of the Guelphs and Ghibellines? 2. Their quarrels? 3. Cultivation in Italy? 4. The great towns? 5. The republics and their privileges? 6, 7. The popes and their partisans? The nobles? 8. Inhabitants of the cities?

CHAPTER CCXIII.

Civil Wars in Italy.

1. In these towns the Ghibelline nobles erected, for their own defence, dwellings with thick walls, strong towers, high, narrow windows, and heavy doors of oak, secured by massive bolts and bars. The Guelph nobles, of course, followed the example of fortifying their houses, and civil war was thus introduced into the cities of Tuscany and the Lombard states. Each of these castles was crowded with knights, esquires, and dependents of inferior grade, who formed a little army always ready for action.

2. Among the great commercial cities of this period was Florence, the chief town of Tuscany. The Florentine and Lombard merchants had established commercial houses in all parts of Europe, and their extensive and prosperous dealings enabled them to build magnificent palaces, so that Florence became the most splendid of all the Italian cities. Many of the wealthy Florentines were money-dealers or bankers, and opened houses in London and Paris.

3. It happened that a gentleman of Florence, named Buondelmonte, who belonged to the Guelph party, had become attached to a young lady of a Ghibelline family, called Amidei. The day was fixed for the marriage, when the faithless lover changed his mind, and married the daughter of a powerful nobleman of his own party.

4. This insult was so deeply resented by the friends of the lady whom he had forsaken, that they assassinated Buondelmonte in the street. This act of violence produced the most fatal consequences. The principal members of the Guelph families met together and made a vow of revenge. For many years afterwards, the streets of Florence almost daily presented scenes of violence and bloodshed.

5. The quarrel extended to all the other towns of Tuscany, and was carried to such a height that regular battles were fought in the streets. At every public festival or assembly, some altercation was sure to arise between a Guelph and a Ghibelline, when the war-cry was instantly sounded, and the fiery Italians, rushing forth with drawn swords, filled the streets with tumults. On one of these occasions all the Guelph families were expelled from Florence in a single night, and thirty-six of their palaces destroyed.

6. In the fourteenth century many of the republics began to grow tired of civil war, and adopted the plan of choosing some powerful nobleman to govern them, in the hope that peace might by this means be restored. Thus a number of petty sovereignties were formed in Italy, the princes of which, at various times, obtained from the emperors the title of Duke, and their territories came to be called duchies.

CCXIII. — 1. Of the nobles in the towns? Their castles? 2. Florence? 3, 4. Repeat the story of Buondelmonte? 5. Of the wars in Tuscany? 6. Of the petty sovereignties in Italy?

CHAPTER CCXIV.

Cola di Rienzi.

1 In these new states were generally two or more great families, who were jealous of each other, each wishing to enjoy the governing influence. It was now no longer by the wars of the popes and emperors, but by those of private families, that the country was disturbed, so that by degrees the names of Guelph and Ghibelline were discontinued.

2. Instead of these factions there now arose, in almost every city, two or three parties headed by the rival nobles, who carried on a perpetual warfare with each other. At Rome there were three families thus at variance, the Orsini, the Savelli, and the Colonna. Nearly all the castles in the patrimony of St. Peter belonged to them, and they all kept in their pay free companies, which were no other than banditti.

3. The peasantry, too, attracted by the hope of plunder, joined these

CCXIV. — 1. Of the great families in the states? 2. The Roman families? 3. The

turbulent chiefs ; so that the districts near Rome were the worst cultivated of any part of the country. The want of a proper government tended to increase these disorders, for sometimes the pope resided at a distance from the city, and sometimes there was a long interregnum between the death of one pontiff and the election of another.

4. When a pope died it was customary for the chief magistrate of Rome to send muffled drums through the streets, and order the gates to be thrown open. The inhabitants of every house were obliged to burn a lamp all night in one of their windows, and a watch was held in every parish.

5. During the greater part of the fourteenth century the popes did not reside at Rome, but at Avignon, in France. This arrangement was very prejudicial to their authority in Italy, and gave rise to the revolution effected by Cola di Rienzi.

6. This person was the son of a Roman citizen in a rather humble sphere of life. He was distinguished in early youth by extraordinary talents, an ardent imagination, and an enthusiastic admiration of the liberties enjoyed by the ancient Romans in the days of the republic. He thought the glory of those days might be renewed, and he seized every opportunity of impressing his own sentiments on the minds of the people.

7. At length, in 1347, taking advantage of the absence of the chief senator, Stephen Colonna, he excited a revolt among the citizens, and established a new form of government, which he called the Good Estate. This government was accepted by the people, who placed him at the head of it, with the title of Tribune.

8. Rienzi made use of his power to banish the Colonna and other noble families from Rome, and for a while he was treated as a sovereign. But he did not continue to act with that moderation which was necessary to secure the success of the enterprise, and was at length assassinated in a tumult, by the very people who had raised him to power.

CHAPTER CCXV.

Schism in the Papacy.

1. DURING the administration of Rienzi, the nobles had made several attacks on the city, and on his death they returned. The Colonnas were reinstated in the government, the old quarrels of the rival families were renewed, and the people became anxious to have the pope once more reside among them.

2. Seventeen years had now elapsed since Clement V. had removed his court to Avignon, and during that long interval, the whole of Italy

peasantry ? The popes ? 4. Of the death of a pope ? 5. Of the removal of the pope to Avignon ? 6. Cola di Rienzi ? 7. Of the Good Estate ? 8. Of Rienzi's administration and death ?

CCXV. — 1. Of the Colonnas in Rome ? 2. Of Italy while the popes resided at

had been a prey to misrule and civil discord. Some of the emperors had paid occasional visits to the Italian states, but their motive had been to obtain money rather than to restore order to the country.

3. At length Pope Gregory XI. at the earnest solicitation of the people of Rome, transferred his residence to that city, in 1378, where he soon after died. This event caused a great schism in the Catholic church, which lasted nearly forty years.

4. The French cardinals wished the papal court to remain in France, while the Italian cardinals preferred Italy. The former, therefore, elected a Frenchman for pope, who took the name of Clement VII., and made Avignon his capital. The Italians chose a countryman of their own, who exercised the papal authority at Rome, under the title of Urban VI.

5. The whole of Christendom was divided between the two pontiffs. Urban was acknowledged in England, Germany, Italy, the northern states of Europe and Portugal, while Clement was obeyed in France, Spain, Scotland, Sicily, Rhodes and Cyprus. The papal authority was much impaired by this division, of which no one could see the end, for when either pope died, his party elected a successor. Two popes were thus reigning at the same time for thirty-eight years.

6. All attempts to induce one or both of them to resign were unavailing. To remove this scandal, a numerous council of prelates assembled at Pisa, in 1409, and elected Alexander V. for the purpose of superseding both the others. Instead of effecting such an object, this proceeding only set up a third competitor.

7. Such conflicts among ecclesiastics could not fail to bring odium on the whole body of prelates, and especially to impair the respect and confidence which laymen had entertained for the offices of churchmen. The anathemas and denunciations of the popes, formerly so terrible, were now principally interchanged between the popes themselves.

8. The church itself, and all its associations, were passing into contempt, and the only remedy seemed to be an authoritative council, in which all the Christian nations of Europe should be represented.

9. Hence originated the council of Constance, held at the city of that name in Switzerland. This council deposed the three rivals, and elected as pope Otho Colonna, a Roman, who took the title of Martin V., A. D. 1417. The great schism was thus terminated.

Avignon? 3. When did the pope return to Rome? Of the schism in the church? 4. Of the cardinals? 5. How was Europe divided in this schism? 6. Of the council of Pisa? 7, 8. What effect had the schism? 9. The council of Constance?

CHAPTER CCXVI.

The Venetian Republic.

1. THE republic of Venice first rose into importance in the latter part of the tenth century. A free commerce was then established with the Greek empire and the Saracens of Egypt. The maritime cities of Istria and Dalmatia had also been subjected to the Venetian dominion. In the wars between the papal and imperial parties, the republic generally supported the former.

2. Pope Alexander III., as a reward for the services of the Venetians, conferred on them the sovereignty of the Adriatic, and hence arose the singular ceremony of celebrating annually a mystic marriage between that sea and the doge of Venice.

3. The crusades tended greatly to enlarge the power of the republic. In the fourth crusade, Constantinople was taken by the Franks, and the Greek empire was dismembered. The Venetians, who were a party in this undertaking, acquired several maritime cities in Dalmatia, Albania, Epirus and Greece; the islands of Crete, Corfu, Cephalonia, and several others.

4. But the increasing wealth of Venice led to a fatal change in its political constitution. The government was originally democratic, the power of the doge being limited by a council, who were freely chosen by the citizens. Several tumults at these elections furnished the doge Gradenigo with an excuse for proposing a law abolishing the annual elections, and rendering the dignity of councillor hereditary in the families of those who were at that period, A. D. 1298, members of the legislative assembly.

5. This establishment of a close aristocracy led to several revolts, but the insurgents were defeated. Ten inquisitors were appointed to investigate the conspiracies, and this commission was soon rendered permanent, under the name of the Council of Ten, the most formidable tribunal ever founded to support aristocratic tyranny.

6. Venice became the commercial rival of Genoa and Pisa, and the clashing of their interests led to the most obstinate and vindictive wars, in which many naval battles were fought with various success. The earliest of the serious misfortunes of Venice may be dated from the time when the republic began to display an ambition to conquer northern Italy.

7. Such an attempt was begun early in the fifteenth century, and the Venetians were thus involved in the desolating wars of that period. They became masters of several duchies and other territories on the north bank of the Po. The members of the reigning families whom they conquered were carried to Venice and put to death, as the most certain mode of preventing revolt and attempts to reinstate them-

CCXVI. — 1. Of Venice and its commerce? 2. Of wedding the Adriatic? 3. The crusades? 4. What effect had the wealth of the Venetians? 5. Of aristocracy and Venice? 6. Of Genoa and Pisa? 7. Of their wars?

selves. Venice was now drawn into the convulsed politics of Italy, and was destined to experience a full share of the misfortunes which awaited that country.

CHAPTER CCXVII.

Genoa. — Lombardy. — Florence. — Naples.

1. GENOA, like Venice, owed its prosperity to its extensive commerce, which flourished in spite of the political convulsions that agitated the republic. The Genoese embraced the cause of the Greek emperors, and helped them to regain Constantinople, from which they had been expelled by the crusaders.

2. Their services were rewarded with the cession of Caffa, Azof, and other ports on the Black Sea, through which they opened a lucrative trade with China and India. They obtained also Pera, a suburb of Constantinople, Smyrna, and several important islands in the Archipelago.

3. Nor were they less successful in extending their power in Italy and the western Mediterranean, though they had a potent rival in the maritime republic of Pisa. The mutual jealousies of these powers, and the efforts of both to gain possession of the islands of Corsica and Sardinia, led to a long and sanguinary war. This ended, A. D. 1290, in the complete overthrow of the Pisans, whose commerce was annihilated by the loss of the island of Elba, and the destruction of Leghorn and the port of Pisa.

4. The states of Lombardy which had wrested their freedom from the German emperors, after a time fell into anarchy. Embarrassed by the advantages which they knew not how to exercise for their own benefit, some of them voluntarily resigned their liberties to new masters, while others yielded to usurpers.

5. The Marquis of Este became lord of Modena and Reggio, in 1336; the house of Gonzaga gained possession of Mantua; and the Visconti took the title of Dukes of Milan, in 1395. Florence retained its freedom and prosperity for a longer period; it was not till the reign of the Emperor Charles V., A. D. 1530, that the republican form of government was abolished, and the supreme authority usurped by the princely family of the Medici.

6. In 1260, the kingdom of Naples passed from the German house of Suabia to the French house of Anjou, in the person of Charles I. This monarch acquired the name of the Tyrant of the Two Sicilies. John of Procida excited a conspiracy against him, which exploded on Easter day, 1282, and is known in history by the name of the Sicilian Vespers.

CCXVII. — 1. Of the commerce of Genoa? 2. Of the Genoese acquisitions on the Black Sea and at Constantinople? 3. Of Corsica and Sardinia? 4. The states of Lombardy? 5. Of Modena, Mantua and Florence? 6. Naples? 7. The Sicilian Vespers?

7. At the sound of the vesper bell, on the evening of that day, the inhabitants of Palermo rose in insurrection and massacred all the French. Sicily became separated from Naples, and passed into the possession of a prince of Arragon. The house of Anjou was subsequently expelled from Italy.

CHAPTER CCXVIII.

Establishment of the Spanish Power in Italy.

1. THE kings of France inherited the Anjou pretensions to the crown of Naples, but none of them attempted practically to assert this claim previous to the accession of Charles VIII. This young monarch, instigated by the solicitations of Lodovico Sforza, the usurping Duke of Milan, and enticed also by some romantic hope of overthrowing the Turkish empire, crossed the Alps with a powerful army, in 1494.

2. He traversed the peninsula without encountering any effective opposition. Rome, Florence and Naples, submitted to the conqueror. But during the progress of the expedition, a league was formed for the expulsion of all foreigners from Italy. The Venetian republic was the moving power of this confederacy, while the emperor of Germany and the king of Spain secretly favored its designs.

3. Alarmed at the approaching danger, Charles, leaving half his army to protect his conquests, led the remainder back to France. He encountered the Venetians on his way, and gained a complete victory. But the forces which he left in Italy were compelled to surrender, and the old government of Naples was restored.

4. Charles was bent on vengeance, and the distracted state of the peninsula gave him hopes of success; but before he could complete his arrangements for a second expedition, he was snatched away by a sudden death, A. D. 1498.

5. Louis XII., his successor, inherited also, from his grandfather, a claim to the duchy of Milan. He strengthened himself by alliances with Venice, the pope, and the king of Spain, and invaded Italy. Milan was captured, and Louis next invaded Naples.

6. Ferdinand of Spain had entered into an alliance with the Neapolitan monarch, Frederic, and his rival, Louis, with a secret intention of cheating both. By his aid the kingdom of Naples was subdued, and the dupe, Frederic, imprisoned for life. But no sooner was the conquest completed than the Spanish king prepared to secure for himself the whole of the spoil.

7. Aided by the abilities of Gonsalvo de Cordova, the Great Captain, he succeeded in expelling the French from Naples, which thus became united to the Spanish monarchy. Charles V., who was at

CCXVIII. — 1. Of the invasion of Italy by Charles VIII. ? 2. The league against him ? 3. Of his retreat ? 4. His death ? 5. Louis XII. ? 6. Ferdinand of Spain ? 7. Gonsalvo de Cordova, and Charles V. ? 8. Italy under the Spaniards ?

the same time emperor of Germany and king of Spain, carried on long wars against his rival, Francis I. of France, and at length dispossessed him of all his Italian domains.

8. Charles then added the title of King of Lombardy to his other dignities. For nearly two hundred years after his death, Italy was ruled chiefly by the kings of Spain. Genoa, Venice and Lucca, retained a republican government; Tuscany was erected into a Grand Duchy; the German emperor held supremacy over some of the Lombardo-Venetian territories, and the pope continued sovereign of the States of the Church.

CHAPTER CCXIX.

Conspiracy of Fiesco, at Genoa.

1. DURING the period that elapsed between the wars of the Emperor Charles V. and those of Bonaparte, no material changes happened in Italy, although many conspiracies were formed, at various times, for the purpose of effecting revolutions in several of the states. The first plot was at Genoa, in 1547, soon after the republican government had been restored by the emperor, at the solicitation of Andrea Doria, the great Genoese admiral.

2. The nobles of Genoa were jealous of the influence possessed by the Dorias in the state, and were also displeased at their attachment to the princes of the house of Austria. One of these discontented nobles was Fiesco, Count of Lavagna, the chief of one of the most ancient and illustrious families of Genoa, who thought that he ought to fill the station occupied by Andrea Doria, at the head of the republic. It was not so much the jealousy entertained of the aged admiral, who had really rendered a service to his country, as of his nephew, Gianettino, an arrogant youth, whose haughty behavior towards the ancient nobility caused him to have many enemies.

3. The elevation of this young man to a share in the government gave great displeasure to the citizens generally, but more particularly to Count Fiesco, who looked upon it as a usurpation of his own rights; in concert with several other noblemen, he formed a conspiracy, the chief object of which was, the destruction of the whole family of the Dorias.

4. Fiesco was only twenty-two years of age, and lately married to a very amiable and beautiful young lady, who was devotedly attached to him. He possessed several large fiefs and strong castles among the mountains; and had numerous vassals and bands of brigands entirely devoted to his service; and he had made himself exceedingly popular by his courteous manners towards the lower orders of the people.

5. The conspirators laid their plans, and fixed a certain night for their intended attack on the palace. The fatal evening arrived, and

CCXIX. — 1. What of Italy between the times of Charles V. and those of Bonaparte? 2. Of the nobles of Genoa? Fiesco? 3. What conspiracy did he form? 4. What is

Fiesco, after partaking of a sumptuous entertainment with the most distinguished of his friends, went to his wife's apartments to impart his designs, which he had hitherto kept a secret from her. The noble lady, equally grieved and terrified, threw herself at his feet, and implored him to abandon so dangerous an undertaking; but the ill-fated young man was firm to his purpose, and bade her adieu, saying, "We either meet no more, or you shall see all Genoa at your feet."

6. Fiesco then put on his armor, and went to join his friends on board the galleys in the harbor, which he meant to seize; when, in crossing from one vessel to another, his foot slipped off the plank, and he fell into the water, unperceived by his companions; for the weight of his coat of mail caused him to sink instantly, and he rose no more. In the mean time, several parties of the conspirators, amounting to about five hundred armed men, had been sent in various directions, with instructions to take possession of the city gates, and other important posts.

7. The news of the sedition being conveyed to the palace, Gianettino Doria went out at the head of a few armed men, thinking it was only a slight tumult, that might easily be appeased; but he was almost immediately killed, and his uncle only avoided a similar fate, by making his escape from the palace through a secret passage.

8. The insurgents had expected to be joined by their leader, Fiesco, without whom they knew not how to proceed; but when they found he did not come, they began to lose courage; as soon as his death was made known, the greatest consternation prevailed, and each of them now only thought of providing for his own safety. Many of the principal conspirators were seized and beheaded. The whole of the unfortunate family of Fiesco suffered for the ambition of their chief, by banishment and the confiscation of their estates; while the venerable Andrea Doria was restored to his high office.

9. From this time, the government of Genoa was highly aristocratic; that is, it was in the hands of certain noble families, whose names were inscribed in a register called the golden book, and none but these had a right to sit in the council. The doge, who had no authority beyond that of chief magistrate, was elected every two years from among the senators, and this form of government lasted until the invasion of Bonaparte.

CHAPTER CCXX.

Conspiracy of Venice.

1. OF all the Italian states, Venice still continued to be the most wealthy and powerful. The Venetians had suffered much by the wars of the league of Cambray, but they employed the latter part of

known of Fiesco? 5. Of the conspiracy? 6. What became of Fiesco? 7. Of Doria? 8. The insurgents? 9. Of the government of Genoa?

the sixteenth century in rebuilding their fortress, reviving their manufactures, and restoring their agriculture to its former flourishing condition.

2. The greatest calamity they sustained during this period, was the loss of the beautiful island of Cyprus, which was taken by the Turkish sultan, Selim the Second, in the year 1570. It had belonged to the republic two hundred years, and was the most valuable of all the Venetian possessions in the Mediterranean, on account of its extreme fertility, and the quantity of wine and wool that it produced.

3. The Venetians made an effort to recover Cyprus, and were assisted by the Spaniards, whose commander, Don John of Austria, gained a great naval victory over the Turks, and destroyed their fleet, in the Bay of Lepanto, in 1571. This victory was celebrated throughout all Christendom, as a glorious triumph of the Christians over the Mahometans.

4. At Venice, it was signalized by solemn processions, fireworks, illuminations, and all kinds of rejoicings, during the space of four days; and on this occasion, the city companies, especially the silk and woollen manufacturers, and German merchants, paraded the streets with splendid pageants, and gave balls each evening, in booths erected for the purpose, and brilliantly illuminated outside.

5. But all this joy did not bring back to the Venetians the beautiful island they had lost; for the government found it so inconvenient to continue the war, that a peace was soon afterwards concluded with the Turks, who, by its terms, were acknowledged sole and undisputed masters of Cyprus.

6. From this time to the breaking out of a fresh war with the Turks, about seventy years afterwards, the republic of Venice remained at peace with foreign powers, and enjoyed a high degree of consideration among the states of Europe.

7. Nothing very remarkable occurred in the affairs of Venice, until the year 1617, when a mysterious plot was partly discovered, that appeared to have been laid with the object of putting an end to the existing government; and was believed to have originated with the Spanish authorities in Italy. This is the conspiracy celebrated in Otway's tragedy of "Venice Preserved;" but the facts are entirely misrepresented in that drama.

8. There were three Spanish noblemen in Italy, the Duke d'Ossuna, Viceroy of Naples; Don Pedro de Toledo, Governor of Milan; and the Marquis de Bedmar, ambassador at Venice; and these three nobles were said to have concerted a plan to destroy the republic of Venice, with a view of increasing their own power in Italy, as well as that of their master, the king of Spain.

9. This plot was revealed to the Council of Ten by a French pirate, named Jacques Pierre, who had absconded from Naples, and obtained employment in the docks at Venice; and he also confessed to the council that he was himself a party concerned in the plot; and that his real business at Venice was to enlist secretly in the service of the

CCXX. — 1 Of Venice in the sixteenth century? 2. The island of Cyprus? 3, 4 Battle of Lepanto? 5. The Turks? 6. State of Venice in Europe? 7. Of Venice Pre

viceroys, a number of the bravoes, who at that time formed a regular part of the establishment of most rich men. According to his own statement, he and another Frenchman, named Jaffier, were to head these assassins, who, on a certain day appointed, were to break into the palace when the council was sitting, and massacre the doge and all the senators.

10. The reason why Pierre made this disclosure was never known ; and it is even doubtful whether any conspiracy ever really existed, or whether the rumor of such a plot was a contrivance between the Duke d'Ossuna and the government of Venice, to cover a design of restoring the ancient independence of Italy, by driving the Spaniards from Lombardy, and converting Naples into a kingdom, of which the crown was to be bestowed on the viceroy. In that case Pierre was himself deceived both by the duke and the Venetian senate, who pretended to believe his story ; but these speculations are of little importance compared with the dreadful events that followed.

11. After ten months had gone by, several bodies, amongst whom was that of Pierre, were one morning seen hanging in the open space before the palace, called St. Mark's Place ; and it was soon whispered abroad that a great many persons had been drowned in the grand canal during the night ; and others strangled in the state prisons.

12. Day after day, more executions took place in St. Mark's Square, to the great horror of the people, who were lost in wonder as to the cause of them ; nor were any reasons ever assigned for these acts, which fearfully illustrate the terrible power possessed at that time by the Venetian government, which could thus, without question or explanation, take away the lives of so many of its subjects.

13. In fact, people were afraid to speak of its proceedings, for spies were employed by the Council of Ten ; and there stood, at the foot of the Giant's Stairs, the famous Lions of St. Mark, with gaping mouths, for the reception of anonymous communications, by which means any one might be charged with a crime against the state, without knowing who was the accuser.

CHAPTER CCXXI.

Insurrection of Masaniello.

1. ANOTHER insurrection occurred, at Naples, about thirty years after that of Pierre, at Venice, known as the revolt of Masaniello. It was in the year 1647, while Naples was under the government of the Spaniards, that great discontent was caused among the lower orders of the people, in consequence of a tax levied by the viceroy on fruit, which in summer was the principal food of the poor.

2. Every time the viceroy appeared in the market-place he was

served ? 8. Who laid a plot at Venice ? 9. Who revealed it ? 10. What was the design ? 11—13. What was the result ?

CCXXI. — 1. When did the insurrection of Masaniello take place ? 2. Of the viceroy

assailed with the shrill cries of the women and children, and the deep murmurings of the men, until he promised to abolish the tax; which, it appears, he intended to do, but was persuaded by some interested persons to break his word; and this was the occasion of the mischief which ensued.

3. There was a young fisherman at Naples, named Thomas Aniello, more usually called Masaniello, who had made himself a great favorite amongst those of his own class, by his lively manners, courage, and activity. About the time of the disturbance respecting the fruit tax, Masaniello's wife was imprisoned for being detected in smuggling a little meal on which the duty had not been paid; and a fine was also imposed for the offence, which her husband could not pay without selling every article of furniture that his little cottage contained.

4. Indignant at being treated with so much severity, he laid a plan with some of his companions to raise a tumult in the market-place, while the revenue officers were collecting the taxes from the market-people, to drive them away, and plunder the office where the duties were received.

5. This plot was successfully executed, and the rioters were speedily joined by thousands of the populace, who forced their way into the palace, of which they took entire possession, while the viceroy fled for shelter to a neighboring convent.

6. Anxious to restore order, he offered to abolish several of the taxes, but chiefly that upon fruit; and to indemnify Masaniello for the loss of his furniture, by granting him a pension; but the young man, elated with success, was now full of ambition, and bent on restoring the independence of his country; therefore, he refused the offer, and being supported by the great mass of the people, he assumed the authority of chief ruler, and by his orders several noblemen were seized and beheaded.

7. Dreadful tumults ensued, in which many lives were lost, and several palaces set on fire; while Masaniello, at the head of a numerous band, rode about the city and issued his commands as a sovereign prince. He even held a conference with the viceroy, who, for the sake of putting a stop to the outrages of the mob, agreed to let him retain the government, and signed a treaty to that effect.

8. Masaniello now appeared in a splendid dress of cloth of silver, his cap adorned with jewels and feathers, and mounted on a horse richly caparisoned. But although he was brave, and perhaps really actuated by patriotic motives, he had not sufficient self-command to exercise the power given to him with the requisite moderation, but conducted himself in so absolute a manner that his own party turned against him, and he was assassinated ten days after his extraordinary elevation.

9. From this time till the year 1713, when a revolution occurred in the government, there were frequent rebellions in Naples against the Spanish authorities, but none of equal importance to that just related.

of Naples? 3. Who was Masaniello? 4, 5. How did the insurrection break out? 6, 7 8. What was the conduct of Masaniello, and what became of him?

CHAPTER CCXXII.

The Modern Popes.

1. AT Rome, from the time of Paul the Third, A. D. 1534, to the French invasion, in 1796, no less than twenty-nine pontiffs were elevated to the papal throne. Some of these ruled with mildness, and were much beloved; others were very arbitrary, and sometimes, by their severity, occasioned tumults in the city.

2. One of these was Paul the Fourth, a proud man, ambitious of ruling over other princes, as his predecessors had done; but the state of society was altogether changed, and the pope had no longer much authority out of his own dominions, except in such affairs of the church as came under his jurisdiction; nor could he expect any homage from the rulers of other states, beyond that which was due to his sacerdotal character.

3. Paul the Fourth was disliked at Rome, because he made the people pay very heavy taxes, and augmented the power of the Inquisition; in consequence of which, the prisons of that tribunal were filled with people suspected of heresy. Yet he was often strictly just in his actions; as a proof of which, he disgraced and banished, for bad conduct, three of his nephews, whom he had raised to very high offices.

4. These were the Marquess of Montebello, the Duke of Pagliano, and the Cardinal Caraffa, all of whom had behaved in a manner very unbecoming their rank; and as soon as the pope died, they excited public tumults at Rome, where the lower orders of the people set fire to the court of the Inquisition, after having broken open the dungeons, and released the prisoners.

5. Much mischief was done in the course of this tumult; so that the next pope, Pius the Fourth, although he granted a general pardon, considered it necessary to except the leaders, who were all three beheaded.

6. One of the most distinguished of the Roman pontiffs was Gregory the Thirteenth, who was elected in the year 1572. He was very much beloved, on account of his mild government, which was injurious in one respect, as not being calculated to check the depredations of the numerous banditti that infested the country around Rome, and even the capital itself.

7. Gregory the Thirteenth made that alteration in the calendar which is called the New Style. Until this period, the precise length of the year had never been exactly settled, so far as regarded some odd minutes at the end of it, which, by miscalculation, had, in the course of many centuries, brought the days out of their proper places; wherefore, Gregory ordered that the dates should be altered on a certain day, to bring them right again.

CCXXII. — 1. Of the pontiffs at Rome? 2. Paul IV. ? 3. The Inquisition? 4. Montebello and Caraffa? 5. Pius IV. ? 6. Gregory XIII. ? 7, 8. The reformation of the

8. This new mode of reckoning was adopted in all Catholic countries, in the year 1582, when ten days were entirely omitted in the calendar, so that the day which used to be the eleventh of the month became the first. It was long before this alteration of the style was introduced into the Protestant states, which was a serious inconvenience in many cases.

9. The established religion of some of the German cities was Protestant, of others Catholic; so that in one town the inhabitants were celebrating their Christmas, and other public festivals, ten days before those of another; till, at last, it was found necessary to make the change universal.

10. Gregory the Thirteenth was a great friend to the Jesuits, for whom he built and endowed a college at Rome, and twenty-seven seminaries in different parts of the world, many of them in heathen countries, where the fathers taught the Christian religion among the people. It is said they did so much good in the Japanese islands, that the emperor of Japan sent ambassadors to Rome to express his gratitude to the pope for the benefits that had been conferred on himself and his people.

11. Gregory ordered public rejoicings at Rome on account of the conversion of the rich and populous empire of Japan to the Christian faith; but the festivities were cut short by the sudden death of the pope, who had reigned over the church of Rome above thirteen years.

CHAPTER CCXXIII.

Sixtus the Fifth.

1. GREGORY the Thirteenth was succeeded by Sixtus the Fifth, whose history is very remarkable. This celebrated personage was the son of a vine dresser residing in a small village in the territory of Montalto, who, being very poor, placed the boy with a farmer in the neighborhood, who employed him to look after his pigs.

2. It happened, one day, that a Franciscan friar travelling through that part of the country, required a guide to conduct him to Ascoli. a town some few miles distant, and our hero was charged with the office. The worthy friar was so pleased with his conversation on the road, that he took him to his convent, where he remained; by close study he became, in time, such an excellent scholar, that he was appointed to a professorship in the college of Siena.

3. The fame he there gained by his lectures caused him to be appointed chief of the Inquisition at Venice; but he had not long filled that high office, before he became involved in a dispute with the Council of Ten, and found it prudent to make his escape from that city. He then took up his abode at Rome, where he was soon raised

calendar? 9. Of the celebration of Christmas? 10. The Jesuits? 11. The Japanese?

CCXXIII.—1. Sixtus V.? 2. How did he rise to notice? 3. How at Rome and

to the dignity of cardinal by Pope Pius the Fifth, and was also highly distinguished by Gregory the Thirteenth, at whose death he was elected pope.

4. A story is told of his having used some artifice on this occasion, pretending to be in very ill health, and extremely infirm, because he knew there were a great many of the cardinals who had reasons for wishing that the next pontificate should be a short one, and would perhaps be induced to choose him, if they thought he could not live long.

5. His government was extremely vigorous, and so strictly just, that it is said he never granted pardon to a criminal under any circumstances. But with this austere temper he did much real good, by freeing the country around Rome from those desperate bands of robbers that for many years had overrun the territory of the capital.

6. Sixtus took great pleasure in aggrandizing his humble family, and adorning his native place with fine buildings; but his chief public works were at Rome, where he made an extensive aqueduct for conveying water to the city from a distance of thirteen miles; rebuilt the Vatican library on a more magnificent scale; and erected near it a fine printing office.

7. This pontiff was a great admirer of Queen Elizabeth, and of Henry the Fourth of France, who were reigning in his time, although both these sovereigns were of the Protestant faith; but he said they knew well how to govern, and were worthy of the thrones they occupied. Sixtus reigned only five years; and when he died, the people rather rejoiced than otherwise, for he had been more feared than beloved, and the strictness with which he enforced the laws against all offenders had more the air of tyranny than justice.

8. An instance of this occurred in the case of a Spanish gentleman of rank, who had killed a Swiss soldier, by striking him a violent blow, to which act he had been provoked by the man's insolence. When the pope was informed of the circumstance, he desired that the culprit should be instantly executed, refusing to listen to any evidence in extenuation of his crime; and when the execution was over, he said to some of his domestics, "Bring me my dinner; this act of justice has given me an appetite."

9. The history of Rome, from this period to the time of the French invasion, affords very little matter for history. The most remarkable event was, the suppression of the Jesuits, by Pope Clement the Fourteenth, who would perhaps have been sorry to put an end to a society that had been of so much service to the Catholic religion, had it not been the wish of almost all the Catholic potentates of Europe that it should be abolished.

10 The Jesuits had already been expelled from several countries, their property confiscated, and their colleges shut up, or converted to other purposes; therefore, the pope was obliged to give his consent for the suppression of the order altogether which, it has been said, he did very reluctantly, in the year 1773.

Venice? 4. What story is told of him? 5. His government? 6. His building? His policy? 8. Anecdote of him? 9. Clement XIV. ? 10. The Jesuits?

CHAPTER CCXXIV.

The Italians of the Eighteenth Century.

1. Rome was not so gay a city as Venice, except on extraordinary occasions, such as the Jubilee, or the coronation of the pope, which was a very magnificent ceremony. It was usually performed in the church of St. John de Lateran, the most ancient of the sacred edifices in Rome.

2. The procession from the Vatican was extremely splendid, the cardinals all attending on horseback, in their purple robes and scarlet hats; the nobles of Rome, in full dress, each followed by four pages, in rich array; and the pope himself, riding on a white mule, preceded by his Swiss guards, in coats of mail and caps adorned with large plumes of feathers; the cavalcade presenting altogether a very grand spectacle.

3. In this order, the pope took his way from the palace to the church, where he was crowned; after which he proceeded to the Campidoglio, a citadel erected by Michael Angelo, opposite St. Peter's, on the site of the ancient Roman capitol, crowds of the common people thronging around him to beg his blessing. On arriving at the capitol, the keys were presented to him by the governor, and restored by him with an appropriate benediction, after which the procession returned to the palace.

4. The evening was celebrated with illuminations, fireworks, and other public rejoicings. The most striking feature in the public festivities at Rome was the illumination of the great dome of St. Peter's, which had a most brilliant effect, as seen against the clear deep blue of an Italian sky.

5. The French style of dress was now prevalent in all the great towns of Italy, and in compliance with a strange custom which had been introduced, married people could not, on any occasion, be seen together in public, without violating the rules of fashion and etiquette. Every married lady, therefore, made choice of some particular gentleman, frequently a relative of noble birth and scanty fortune, who attended her wherever she went, and was called her cavalier servente.

6. Masks were very generally worn by both sexes at all public places, a gentleman usually appearing at an opera or assembly in a black silk domino, which was a short cloak, with a velvet mask under his hat, just concealing the upper part of the face. The ladies wore the mask quite over the face, and a veil thrown over the head.

7. No place in the world could be more gay, during the latter half of the eighteenth century, than the city of Venice, notwithstanding all its misfortunes; for the Venetians, having no longer any pretensions to power, devoted themselves entirely to amusement; so that, to a stranger, each day appeared like a public holiday, in consequence of the processions, and shows of various kinds.

CCXXIV. — 1. Of the Jubilee at Rome? 2, 3. The procession of the pope? 4. Illuminations? 5. Style of dress? 6. Masking? 7. Gayety of Venice? 8. Gondolas?

8. Then the gondolas on the canals were occupied by parties in pursuit of enjoyment, and the rooms called casinos, in St. Mark's Place, were every evening filled with company, it being customary for people of fashion, instead of entertaining their friends at their own houses, to invite parties of ladies and gentlemen to partake of refreshments at a casino.

9. The carnival was celebrated with more splendor at Venice than in any other place, and the city, at that mirthful season, was always visited by immense numbers of foreigners. In short, pleasure engrossed the whole time and thoughts of the Venetians, until the exciting events of the French Revolution turned their thoughts to graver matters.

10. The happiest part of Italy is still, as it ever has been, the grand-duchy of Tuscany. Duke Ferdinand died in 1824, and was succeeded by his son, Leopold the Second, who devoted a large share of his time to attending to the welfare of his people, and the improvement of the country. He made several new roads, and improved many parts of a low marshy country extending along the sea-coast, called the Maremma, which is so unhealthy, from damp, and the sulphureous nature of the soil, that it had long been entirely deserted; but by his exertions, it was rendered partially habitable.

11. All modern travellers speak of the gayety, neatness, and easy circumstances, of the Tuscan peasantry, who seem to enjoy more happiness than the rural population of any other country in Europe, except Austria. At every cottage door are seen women and girls busily employed in plaiting straw for hats, of which great quantities are sent all over Europe, and to the American states.

12. The young peasant girls wear these hats themselves, ornamented with flowers and ribbons. The Italian language is spoken more correctly in Tuscany than in any other part of Italy, Rome not excepted; and even the lower classes express themselves with a degree of refinement that is seldom found amongst uneducated people.

13. The country around Florence is well cultivated, beautiful and picturesque, and the hills are covered with elegant villas, belonging to the nobility and gentry. In Florence, as in almost all the large towns of Italy, the ground floors of the best houses, which are generally dignified with the name of palaces, are let out as shops, and the family of the shopkeeper occupies the first floor; so that the owners of the palace have often to ascend two flights of stairs, to reach their residence.

14. Most great families in Florence have also a custom, which appears strange to American people, of agreeing with their cooks to furnish them with a dinner every day, for a certain price, which is of course determined according to the number of the family, and the manner in which they choose to live.

15. The landed proprietors of Piedmont are in general rich, as estates are very productive in that country, which is one of the most

9. Carnival? 10. Of Tuscany under Leopold? 11. The peasantry? 12. The Tuscan language? 13. Florence? 14. Singular custom? 15. Piedmont? 16. Its inhabitants? 17. Savoy?

fertile spots in Europe. Its plains afford abundance of corn, rice, fruit, and vegetables; its hills are covered with vineyards; its valleys with fine pastures; and great attention is paid to the growth of mulberry trees, for the nourishment of silk-worms, a branch of industry that affords ample employment for the female peasantry of many districts.

16. The country folks of Piedmont are cheerful and industrious. The women are fond of gaudy ornaments, such as large necklaces and ear-rings, and wear very high muslin caps. On religious festivals, which are frequent in all Catholic countries, the peasants of every village in Piedmont assemble in the meadows, to dance and make merry. The silks made in Piedmont are superior to those of Naples, although it is very usual for shopkeepers to call a silk "gros de Naples," by way of recommendation; and there are also velvet, linen, and woollen manufactories, in different parts of the country.

17. The country of Savoy is poorer and less fertile than that of Piedmont, in consequence of which, many poor boys leave their homes to wander about Europe, trying to gain, by the aid of their voices and guitars, a scanty subsistence in more wealthy countries; and these simple Savoyards are so frugal and industrious, that they not unfrequently return to their native villages, with sufficient money to establish themselves in a more settled mode of life.

CHAPTER CCXXV.

Modern Revolutions of Italy.

1. THE kingdom of Naples passed from the Spanish dominions to a prince of the house of Austria, in 1713; and about the same time Piedmont, Savoy and Sardinia, were erected into a monarchy, with the title of the Kingdom of Sardinia. The political state of Italy suffered no material alteration from this time till the French Revolution.

2. The Austrian influence was then predominant in Italy, and the French Directory, in 1796, despatched an army under General Bonaparte into Piedmont, for the purpose of expelling the Austrians from that part of the country. This was the beginning of the brilliant military career of that extraordinary man, who had not previously attracted any great notice.

3. The success of Bonaparte in the north of Italy was so decisive that in two years the whole of Lombardy was conquered by the French, and the Austrian armies were completely expelled from Italy. The king of Naples and the pope were permitted to remain at peace, but were compelled by the conqueror to pay heavy contributions.

4. The republic of Venice was overthrown, and the city ultimately

CCXXV. — 1. Of Naples under the Austrian dominion? Of Piedmont, Savoy and Sardinia? 2. Of the French and Bonaparte in Italy? 3. Bonaparte's success? 4. The

transferred by the French to Austria. All the conquered states of Lombardy were united under one government, called the Cisalpine Republic. A popular tumult shortly afterward happened at Rome. The French took advantage of this to overturn the papal government; the pope retired to a monastery, and a consular government was established in Rome.

5. During the absence of Bonaparte in Egypt, in 1798, the Austrians reëntered Italy and regained possession of a considerable part of what had been conquered from them. But their triumph was of short duration.

6. Bonaparte returned from Egypt, and having been raised to the head of the French government, with the title of First Consul, marched an army across the Alps into Italy, in the spring of 1800 and totally overthrew the Austrian armies at the battle of Marengo.

7. Bonaparte was now completely master of Italy, and allowed the new pope, Pius VII., who had just been elected, to take his place at the head of the government of Rome.

8. When Napoleon became emperor of France, the Cisalpine Republic was changed to a monarchy, with the title of the Kingdom of Italy, the crown of which was assumed by him in 1805. Genoa and its territories for some years enjoyed a popular government under the name of the Ligurian Republic, but in 1809 they were united to the French empire.

9. In 1806 Napoleon placed his brother Joseph on the throne of Naples, which he occupied about two years, when he was transferred to the throne of Spain. Joachim Murat, who had married the sister of Napoleon, was then made king of Naples. In 1809 Napoleon deprived the pope of his temporal power in Rome, and annexed that city to the French empire. He suppressed all the convents, and compelled the monks and nuns to betake themselves to other occupations.

10. On the overthrow of Napoleon, the Austrian power was reestablished in Italy. The pope recovered his political rank; Murat was deprived of his crown and put to death; the kingdom of Sardinia was restored, and augmented by the addition of the Genoese territory. Venice and Lombardy fell under the Austrian government, and Tuscany was placed under the Grand Duke of the Austrian family.

11. Some of the smaller duchies were restored to their former possessors, on certain conditions, but nearly the whole of Italy may be regarded from this period as under the dominion of the house of Austria.

12. During upwards of thirty years from the restoration of the old government of Italy, this country remained in a state of comparative tranquillity. The authority of the reigning power in most of the states was sustained by armed force, and the administration was, in general, of a very arbitrary character.

Cisalpine Republic? 5. Of the Austrian re-conquest of Italy? 6, 7. Of the campaign of Marengo? 8. The kingdom of Italy? The Ligurian Republic? 9. Of Joseph Napoleon in Naples? Of the pope? 10. Of the overthrow of Napoleon? 11. The Austrians in Italy? 12. The state of Italy after the restoration of the ancient government?

CHAPTER CCXXVI.

Modern Revolutions of Italy, Continued.

1. ABOUT the year 1840, though every thing was quiet upon the surface, much dissatisfaction was created throughout Italy through the influence of secret societies, organized and fostered by Mazzini and other agitators. At length, in 1847, symptoms of reform appeared in the Papal territories, where the spirit of innovation was supposed to be the least active. Pope Gregory XVI. died in 1846, and his successor, Pius IX., to the surprise of the world, announced himself as a friend to liberal principles of government.

2. Great hopes were now entertained of the regeneration of Italy. Tuscany and Sardinia followed Rome in the path of progress, and the three states entered into a customs-union, their respective rulers either conceding or promising freedom to the press, and representation to the people. The French Revolution of 1848 followed, producing a powerful effect in Italy. The Sicilians and Neapolitans rose and demanded a constitution, which the king was compelled to grant, but which he soon found means to break.

3. In the north of Italy, still more important events signalized the progress of liberal opinions. The Lombards and Venetians rose in insurrection, and threw off the yoke of the Austrians. Charles Albert, king of Sardinia, espoused their cause, put himself at the head of the revolutionary movement, and drove the Austrians under Radetzky out of Lombardy, and seemed upon the point of taking possession of Venice.

4. The scale turned, however, and Austrian rule was reestablished in Lombardy. The Sardinian king, encouraged by the flight of the Pope from Rome, in November, and by the obstinate resistance made by Venice to the Austrians, determined once more to measure swords with the oppressor. He was totally routed at Novara, in March, 1849, and abdicated on the day of the battle, leaving the throne and its perplexities to his son, Victor Emanuel II.

5. The Austrians resumed their sway; the Pope was brought back to Rome by French troops—who were for a time obstinately resisted by Garibaldi and others—and was for many years kept there by French bayonets. The reaction in Southern Italy was complete, and the people were more oppressed than ever.

6. The new king of Sardinia sought to improve the condition of his subjects, by making commercial treaties with other nations, and by fostering industry in every possible way. So liberal were his views, that he was supported even by republicans like Garibaldi. Austria likewise sought to strengthen her position in Lombardy and Venice,

CCXXVI.—1. What was the state of things in Italy in 1840? In 1847? What of Pius IX.? 2. What of Tuscany and Sardinia? What effect did the French Revolution of 1848 have? Sicily and Naples? 3. What of the Lombards and Venetians? The King of Sardinia? 4. Was he successful? Why did he persevere? What happened at Novara? 5. What now occurred? The Pope? Southern Italy? 6. What did Victor Emanuel now strive to do? Austria?

but to no purpose, as an insurrection in 1854, in Milan, which was with difficulty suppressed, very plainly showed.

7. The political influence of Sardinia had been greatly increased by the part its army took in the Crimean war, 17,000 men having fought with the French and English against the Russians. Several circumstances now occurred to indicate the existence of some species of alliance between Victor Emanuel and France. When Orsini, an Italian, tried to take the life of the French Emperor, the Sardinian government passed a law against "certain suspected persons." Prince Napoleon, the cousin of Napoleon III., sought in marriage, and subsequently wedded, Victor Emanuel's daughter.

8. The Emperor of Austria was alarmed at these events, and sought to strengthen himself still more in Lombardy, and even to form an Italian league. He saw, however, that he must prepare for war, and to meet France and the States of Northern Italy in the field. The Italians were led to suppose that, in case of victory, they would secure their national independence, not merely exchange one foreign supremacy for another.

9. The Austrians crossed the Ticino, a stream separating Lombardy from Piedmont, in April, 1859. They ravaged the Italian fields during the following month, and on the 20th of May were defeated by the allies at Montebello, and were subsequently routed in the battles of Magenta and Solferino, on the 4th and 24th of June. Certain circumstances—and among them the threatening attitude of Prussia—decided the French Emperor to tempt the fortunes of war no further; a truce, and the treaties of Villafranca and Zurich, followed in July and November.

10. It was stipulated in these instruments that Austria should retain Venice, and that Tuscany and Modena should resume their allegiance to their Austrian Grand-Ducal rulers; that Austria should cede to Sardinia a large portion of Lombardy, for which the government of Victor Emanuel should pay the sum of forty-two millions of dollars. The French Emperor seemed to favor the establishment of some sort of Italian federation, under the presidency of the Pope, an idea which was received throughout Italy with the most profound dissatisfaction.

11. Six months had not elapsed, before Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and a large part of the Papal dominions, had voted by overwhelming majorities for annexation to the dominions of Victor Emanuel, who, it was now clearly seen, would soon become "King of Italy," in fact and in name. The Pope was left with a small strip of territory surrounding the city of Rome. The province of Savoy and the county of Nice, belonging to Sardinia, were, by the consent of their inhabitants, transferred to France.

12. It now remains to describe the final and successful effort made by the people of Naples and Sicily to throw off the yoke of their tyrant, and join the new Kingdom of Italy.

7. What of an alliance between France and Sardinia? 8. What seemed now imminent? What did the Italians hope for? 9. Describe the campaign which followed. Why did the French Emperor desist? What followed? 10. What agreement was made by the treaty? What did Austria retain? What did Sardinia gain, and at what price? What was the plan of the French Emperor, and how was it received? 11. What parts of Italy now voted for annexation to Sardinia? How was the Pope left? What transfer was made from Sardinia to France?

CHAPTER CCXXVII.

Modern Revolutions of Italy, Concluded.

1. THE uprising of the people of Sicily, in January, 1848, against their sovereign, Ferdinand II., king of Naples, has been mentioned. The insurrection spread throughout the island, and soon extended to the continent. The king, in order to appease the people, changed his ministry, granted a constitution, and established universal suffrage; but, while making these concessions, was secretly preparing to revoke them.

2. On the 15th of May, a revolt in the city of Naples was suppressed, and soon afterwards the island of Sicily had been recovered to the royal authority. The king took a bloody revenge upon the revolutionists, and terrible executions followed in Messina and Palermo. The merciless character of these punishments obtained for their author the name of "King Bomba."

3. The king, having re-enforced his mercenary troops, principally Swiss, and having secured by largesses the favor of the lazzaroni, or beggars of Naples, was enabled to end his days in comparative tranquillity. He was succeeded by his son, Francis II., in 1859, and another revolt in Sicily broke out soon afterwards. Garibaldi, who was at this time in Sardinia, determined to go to the insurgents' assistance.

4. He left Genoa with a few hundred volunteers, and landed in Sicily in May, 1860. The Sicilians flocked to his standard, and in numerous engagements overpowered the king's troops. They took Palermo, in June, and Messina, in July. The king vainly sought to satisfy the people, by offering Sicily a separate constitution and a government of her own choosing.

5. Francis II., or, as he was sometimes called, "Little Bomba," saw that he had lost Sicily, but determined to make an effort to save his Neapolitan dominions. He set his fleet to cruising between Sicily and the main land, in order to capture Garibaldi, should he attempt to pass across. He had an army of 80,000 men, and these he posted in advantageous positions. He did not know that many of his soldiers and sailors were heart and soul with the revolutionists, and would go over to Garibaldi as soon as occasion offered.

6. Garibaldi landed on the Calabrian coast in August, defeated such of the king's troops as remained faithful to him, and was soon in undisputed possession of the southern half of the Neapolitan territory. The king fled, in September, to his stronghold of Gaeta, on the sea-coast, to the north-east. Garibaldi immediately entered Naples in triumph, and was looked upon and obeyed as a dictator.

7. He fought the king's troops once more on the banks of the Vol-

CCXXVII.—1. What of an uprising in Sicily in 1848? How did the king seek to appease the people? 2. What happened in May? What of the king's revenge? 3. The king's troops? Who succeeded Ferdinand II? What event followed? Garibaldi? 4. What of his deeds in Sicily? How did the king seek to thwart him? 5. How did he strive to save his Neapolitan dominions? His army and navy? Could he depend upon them? 6. State what followed. How was Garibaldi now looked upon?

turno, and won a dearly-bought victory. On the 21st of October, he summoned the people of the Two Sicilies to decide their own destiny by vote. 1,420,000 votes were cast; of these, 1,310,000 were for annexation to the Kingdom of Italy, under Victor Emanuel. The king, thus invited, and accompanied by Garibaldi, entered Naples on the 7th of November. Garibaldi, neither asking nor receiving any reward whatever for his services, retired, a private citizen, to the island of Caprera.

8. Francis II. held his stronghold of Gaeta till February, 1861, when he was forced to abandon it. He fixed his residence at Rome, in the delusive hope that his late subjects would soon tire of their new condition and recall their former sovereign. Victor Emanuel assumed the title of King of Italy on the 17th of March, making Turin the capital for the time being.

9. He gave the people a constitution, which was an expansion of the charter granted in 1848, by Charles Albert, to the Sardinians. By this the people were to be governed by a parliament, this consisting of the king, a senate, and chamber of deputies. The senators are appointed by the king, the deputies are chosen by the people. Every man, 21 years of age, who pays annual taxes to the amount of eight dollars, is a voter. 443 deputies were sent to the chamber in 1862.

10. Thus has the aspiration of the Italians for national unity and independence been realized. Italy is now one of the great powers of Europe, with an army of 400,000 men, and a navy of 100 vessels and 1,100 guns. The capital was removed not long ago from Turin to Florence, and, should the Pope cease to hold and exercise temporal authority over the narrow region to which he is now confined, will doubtless be transferred to Rome. (For the area and population of the various states composing the kingdom of Italy, see page 13.)

11. Giuseppe Garibaldi, who has acted so important a part in these events, was born in Nice, in 1806, and was bred a mariner. He spent many years in South America, and aided the people there in their struggles for independence. He sailed in 1848 with a body of men, recruited by him, and called the Italian Legion, and, landing in Sardinia, offered his services to Charles Albert; he shared in the disasters subsequently suffered by that monarch.

12. Upon the flight of the Pope from Rome, the new government offered Garibaldi a command. He fought the French successfully for a time, and, after a most romantic existence, was arrested in Sardinia and banished. He came to New York in 1850, and declining a public reception, established himself at Staten Island as a maker of candles. He again became a sailor, and after various wanderings returned to Nice. In 1859, on the breaking out of the war with Austria, he formed a corps called the Hunters of the Alps, and performed the splendid part in the establishment of the Kingdom of Italy, which has been detailed above.

7. What of another battle? What of a vote in the Two Sicilies? What was the result? What did Garibaldi do? 8. What became of the dethroned king? What title did Victor Emanuel assume, and when? What was the capital of Italy? 9. What are the principal features of the present government of Italy? 10. What of the army and navy? The present capital? What city will probably be the capital? 11, 12. State the prominent events in the life of Garibaldi.

THE CITY OF ROME.

CHAPTER CCXXVIII.

Rome under the Kings and the Republic.

1. THE part of Rome which is said to have been built by Romulus occupied the Palatine Hill, on the east side of the Tiber. This primitive town was built in a square form, according to the custom of the Latins. It was intersected by two main streets, one running from north to south, the other from east to west.

2. The three hills north of the Palatine were occupied by the Sabines, and the Capitoline Hill was their citadel. Etruscan settlements also existed on the Caelian Hill, and part of the Esquiline. The Seven Hills, thus inhabited by three different nations, were united into one city, and surrounded by a wall, by Servius Tullius.

3. The whole circuit of the wall was about six miles. It included considerable tracts of land not occupied by buildings, but either devoted to pasturage, or covered with woods and thickets; such were large portions of the Esquiline and Viminal. In times of war the people of the neighborhood took refuge within the walls of the city, where they found sufficient space and food for their cattle.

4. Servius Tullius divided the whole city, within the walls, into four regions, which coincided with the four tribes of Roman citizens. Many great buildings, as we have already remarked, were erected at Rome during the time of the kings.

5. The *cloaca maxima* still remains, as also some part of the wall of Servius, the whole of which existed in the eighth century of Rome. During the early part of the republic we find no mention of such great architectural works as those of the kingly period; but with the increase of the population many of the uninhabited districts must have gradually become covered with houses.

6. About one hundred and twenty years after the establishment of the republic, the city was captured by the Gauls, who set it on fire. The whole was consumed except the capitol, a few houses on the Palatine, and the large structures of stone.

7. The hasty manner in which the city was rebuilt explains the fact, that, down to the time of Nero, the streets of Rome were narrow, irregular and crooked, and in point of beauty and regularity this city was far inferior to many other great towns in Italy. For five hundred years after its foundation, the private houses of Rome were generally covered with shingles, and there were still a number of groves within the walls.

CCXXVIII.—1. Of Rome as built by Romulus? 2. The three hills? The Seven Hills? 3. The walls? 4. Servius Tullius? 5. The *cloaca maxima*, &c.? 6. The capture by the Gauls? 7. The rebuilding?

CHAPTER CCXXIX.

Architecture of Rome.

1. TOWARDS the end of the period which is comprised between the Gallic conflagration and the close of the Second Punic War, Rome began to be embellished with temples, which, however, as to materials and architecture, were far inferior to the temples of Greece. High roads and aqueducts were also constructed.

2. The streets of the city do not appear to have been paved at this period. Somewhat later, we find public places, streets and walks under porticoes, commonly paved with square blocks of stone.

3. The private houses had from the earliest times been very simple in structure, but after the conquest of Greece, and more especially of Asia Minor, the citizens began to build their dwellings in a magnificent style, and the taste for splendid mansions and palaces increased so rapidly that a house like that of Crassus, which at first attracted universal admiration for its splendor and magnificence, was lost among superior buildings in the course of a few years.

4. Public edifices, however, still remained the chief objects of the pride of the Romans. Theatres, a class of buildings which had previously been scarcely tolerated, were erected in several parts of Rome during the last century of the republic, especially after the time of Sulla. During the civil wars between Marius and Sulla, the number of houses had increased to such a degree that they extended beyond the walls of Servius.

5. Of all the splendid buildings which were raised during the latter days of the republic, scarcely any traces exist. Augustus might well say that he had changed Rome from brick to marble. The temples, porticoes, arcades, theatres, and public buildings of every description, which were erected during his reign, were innumerable. The whole plain between the Quirinal and the river became a new town, which in magnificence far surpassed the city of the hills. This new town was one mass of temples, arcades, and places of amusement.

6. Aqueducts for supplying water had been built as early as 313, B. C. Others were constructed afterward, but it was not till the imperial period that this species of architecture reached perfection, and most of the remains now visible belong to the period of the empire.

7. All the houses in Rome were very high, after the city became populous. Augustus fixed seventy feet, and Trajan sixty, as the maximum height. The upper story was generally of wood. It was a law of the Twelve Tables, which also existed in the legislation of later times, that no two houses should touch each other, but that a space of five feet should be left between them.

CCXXIX. — 1. Of temples, roads, &c., in Rome? 2. Streets? 3. Private houses? 4. Theatres, &c.? 5. Of the remains of the republican city? Of the improvements by Augustus? 6. Aqueducts? 7. Houses?

CHAPTER CCXXX.

Grandeur, Embellishment, and Decay of the City.

1. ALL that had been done for the embellishment of Rome previous to the reign of Nero, was eclipsed by the magnificent buildings of this emperor; but the greater part of these structures, together with those of former days, perished in the conflagration which happened before his death.

2. His plan of restoring the city was gigantic, but it proved to be impracticable. He proposed to make Rome a seaport, and to connect it with the ocean by long walls, reaching to Ostia, at the mouth of the Tiber. But all that he was able to do was to restore those parts of the city which had been destroyed.

3. The face of the rebuilt portions, however, assumed a totally different aspect. On the ruins of the Palatine rose the Golden House of Nero, which occupied a space equal to a large town. The greatest care was taken to make the new streets wide and straight. All the new buildings were massive, and built of stone, without the old wooden upper story.

4. The width of the new streets rendered it necessary to extend the city beyond its former limits. In the reign of Vespasian a measurement of the circumference of Rome was taken, according to which it amounted to upwards of thirteen miles. The subsequent emperors continued to increase and embellish the city, but in the reign of Commodus, a great part was again destroyed by fire, which consumed all the buildings on the Palatine.

5. Septimius Severus exerted himself to restore the burnt portions, and to ornament the city; some of his structures are still extant. But the grandeur and magnificence of the baths of Caracalla surpassed all the works of his predecessors. Almost all the great buildings, or their remains, which still exist at Rome, belong to the period between Nero and Constantine.

6. The most extensive work of this period is the immense wall, with its numerous towers, with which Aurelian surrounded the city. This work appears to have been completed in the reign of Probus, A. D. 276. The Janiculate Mount, which was fortified from the earliest times of the republic, was now, for the first time, included within the city walls, together with the region south of the Tiber.

7. After the time of Constantine, when the emperors and the Roman nobles had adopted the Christian religion, the decay and destruction of the ancient edifices commenced. The building of numerous churches was the immediate cause of this destruction. Neither the court nor private individuals possessed sufficient wealth to erect buildings equal in form or materials to those of their ancestors; and as heathen temples could not always be converted into Christian churches,

CCXXX.—1. Of Nero's embellishment of Rome? 2. His plans of restoring the burnt city? 3. The Golden House? 4. Of Rome under Vespasian and Commodus? 5. Severus and Caracalla? 6. Wall of Aurelian? 7. Of the emperors after Constantine?

they were generally pulled down for the sake of the materials. Numerous columns were thus removed from their places, and the remaining parts were abandoned to any persons who chose to take them.

CHAPTER CCXXXI.

Rome after the Overthrow of the Empire.

1. DURING the fifth century of the Christian era, great calamities were inflicted upon Rome by the ravages of the northern barbarians. The population now began rapidly to decrease, and towards the end of the century the suburbs were no longer inhabited, except near the Janiculine Hill.

2. In the sixth century, when Rome was besieged by the Goths under Totila, there was so much cultivated land within the walls that the citizens thought the corn they had sown would be sufficient to supply the garrison and inhabitants in a protracted defence.

3. Great calamities combined to desolate Rome in the seventh and eighth century. Famine, earthquakes, a pestilence, and five tremendous inundations of the Tiber, drove the inhabitants from the greater portion of the ancient site of the city.

4. The period of the exarchate and of the Lombard dominion is that of the deepest distress of Rome. The most diligent inquiry is unable to discover who were her acknowledged masters, or what was the form of her domestic government.

5. Subsequently to the extinction of the exarchate, in 752, Rome had been abandoned, but was never formally resigned, by the Greek emperors. About the year 800, the Romans appear to have recurred to the memory of their former institutions. They organized a corporation, which received advice rather than command from the pope, who had silently usurped the title of "Lord."

6. The history of Rome soon became merged in the history of the pontiffs, who employed every moment of peace and prosperity in rebuilding the walls, in burning lime, in constructing churches and shrines of martyrs, the materials of which were supplied from the deserted ruins.

7. Honorius I. stripped the temple of Romulus of its gilt tiles Gregory III. took the columns from an ancient building for the church of St. Peter. Adrian I. demolished one of the most gigantic and massive of the old structures of the city, to enlarge a church. Paul II. employed the stones of the Coliseum to build a palace.

CCXXXI.—1. What of Rome in the fifth century? 2. In the sixth? 3. In the seventh and eighth? 4. Under the exarchate and Lombards? 5. In the year 800? 6. The pontiffs? 7. Honorius I., Adrian I., and Paul II.?

CHAPTER CCXXXII.

Rome in the Middle Ages.

1. WITH the introduction of modern manners, architecture and political institutions, a new Rome rose on the ruins of the old capital. The rising importance of the modern city accelerated the destruction of what remained of ancient structures. From the time when Rome again became worth a contest, we find her citizens in arms, sometimes against each other, sometimes against the pretenders to the imperial crown.

2. The spirit of feudalism bred a succession of factions within her walls, most pernicious to the repose and prosperity of the state. The gigantic structures of the city became converted into fortresses, and suffered in the civil wars which distracted the community.

3. The Orsini occupied the mausoleum of Adrian and the theatre of Pompey. The Colonna chieftains intrenched themselves within the massy walls of the tomb of Augustus and the baths of Constantine. The Conti fortified the edifices on the Quirinal. The Frangipani fought their enemies from the innumerable arches of the Coliseum, from the Septizonium of Severus, and the great arch of Janus. The Savelli converted the enormous tomb of Cecilia Metella into a fortress, and the pope devoted the Pantheon to the same purpose.

4. In the quarrels between the pope and the German emperor, which embroiled the whole of Italy, the city of Rome was a chosen scene of combat. Within its walls were castles to defend and space to fight. We read, accordingly, in the annals of those times, of armies encamped on the Aventine, and marching from the tomb of Adrian to the Lateran, or turning aside to the Coliseum or the capitol, as if through a desert, to the attack of the strong posts occupied by the respective partisans of the pope or the emperor.

5. Great fires were sometimes the consequence of these hostilities. The emperor Henry IV., the troops of the pope's nephew, Rusticus, and the Normans of Robert Guiscard, committed more havoc among the remains of ancient Rome, from 1082 to 1084, than all the preceding barbarians of every age.

6. The first of these ravagers burnt a large part of that district called the Leonine city; he destroyed the great portico from the Ostian Gate to the church of St. Paul, battered the tomb of Adrian, and demolished many of the Capitoline structures. The army of Guiscard, with the papal faction, burnt the city from the Flaminian Gate to the Antonine Column, laid waste the sides of the Esquiline to the Lateran, set fire to the whole region from thence to the Coliseum and the capitol, and completed the ruin of the latter edifice.

CCXXXII.—What of the new Rome? 2. Of the spirit of feudalism? 3. The Orsini, the Colonna, the Frangipani, and their wars? 4. Quarrels of the popes and emperors? 5, 6. Of fires in Rome?

CHAPTER CCXXXIII.

Rome under the Popes.

1. FROM this period must be dated the desolation of the Esquiline, the Viminal, and the Caelian Hills, the ruin of the Coliseum, and many of the structures in the Forum and the Sacred Way. A contemporary writer says that all the regions of the city were ruined. Another spectator, who was in Rome twelve years afterwards, laments that although what remained could not be equalled, what was ruined could never be repaired.

2. What chiefly excited the astonishment of this observer, was the beauty of the statues, which, according to him, the gods themselves might survey with envy, and which were worthy of being worshipped, on the sculptor's account.

3. In 1167 the German army of Frederic Barbarossa assaulted the Vatican for a week, and the pope saved himself in the Coliseum. After the popes had begun to yield to the unequal contest with the senators and people, and had ceased to reside constantly at the capital, the field was left open for the wars of the nobles.

4. The people, to arrest their violence, placed the senator Brancalcione at the head of the government. This magistrate threw down one hundred and forty towers of the refractory nobles, with a great number of palaces, baths, temples, and columns, the remains of the ancient city.

5. There were intervals between the death and the election of the popes, when the city was unprovided with any recognized authorities. In 1291 such an interval caused six months of civil war. The towers and fortresses of the city were furnished with engines which cast stones of twelve hundred pounds' weight; and it is easy to imagine what mischief they caused among the crumbling walls of the old structures.

6. The coronation of the emperor, Henry VII., was attended with battles fought in every quarter of the city, from the Vatican to the Lateran; and while he received the ensigns of universal empire in the latter church, his rival, John, was in possession of the fortified church of St. Peter and other posts.

7. The fall of houses, conflagration, slaughter, the ringing of bells in all the churches, the shouts of the combatants, the clang of arms, and the rush of the people from all quarters, formed an universal uproar which was the common prelude to the coronation of a German Cæsar in Rome.

CCXXXIII.—1. Of the desolation of the city? 2. Of the statues? 3. Frederic Barbarossa? 4. Brancalcione? 5. Of the death and election of the popes? 6, 7. Of the coronation of the emperors?

CHAPTER CCXXXIV.

Ruins of Rome in the Fifteenth Century.

1. THE triumph of superstition conspired with the ignorance and necessities of the Romans to render them more indifferent to the relics of pagan antiquity. Whatever nationality and patriotism they had evinced in the times of turbulence, were degraded into a blind veneration for the shrines of the apostles, and for the person of their successor.

2. A secretary of the popes, an antiquary, and one who may be cited as a favorable specimen of the better class of citizens, writes thus. "There are still at Rome most high and admirable objects, which can be seen nowhere else. Here is the threshold of the apostles, and the earth purple with the blood of the martyrs. Here is the handkerchief of St. Veronica, the heads of Peter and Paul, the cradle of our Saviour, and the bridal ring sent from heaven to St. Agnes. More than fifty thousand strangers, from all parts of the world, come every year to Rome in the time of Lent, to see, touch, and venerate these things."

3. The remains of antiquity were mere rubbish in the eyes of that generation. In 1430, Poggio Bracciolini uttered the following soliloquy, as he surveyed the remains of the Eternal City from the summit of the Capitoline Hill. "The primeval state of Rome has been delineated by the fancy of Virgil. The Tarpeian Rock was then a savage and solitary thicket; in the time of the poet it was crowned with the golden roof of a temple.

4. "The temple is overthrown; the gold has been pillaged; the wheel of fortune has accomplished its revolution, and the sacred ground is again disfigured with thorns and brambles. The hill of the capitol, on which we sit, was formerly the head of the Roman empire, the citadel of the earth, the terror of kings.

5. "The spectacle of the world, how is it fallen! how defaced! The path of victory is obliterated by vines, and the benches of the senators are concealed by a dunghill. Cast your eyes on the Palatine Mount, and seek among the shapeless and enormous fragments, the marble theatre, the obelisks, and the colossal statues and the porticoes of Nero's palace.

6. "Survey the other hills of the city; the vacant space is interrupted only by ruins and gardens. The forum of the Roman people, where they assembled to enact their laws and elect their magistrates, is now enclosed for the cultivation of pot-herbs, or thrown open for the reception of swine and buffaloes.

7. "The public and private edifices, that were founded for eternity lie prostrate, naked and broken, like the limbs of a mighty giant. And the ruin is the more visible from the stupendous relics that have survived the injuries of time and fortune."

CCXXXIV.—1. What of the superstition and ignorance of the Romans? 2. Of a secretary of the pope? 3. Of Poggio Bracciolini? 4. Of his description of the ruins of Rome?

CHAPTER CCXXXV.

Modern Rome.

1. THE Rome of the middle ages was a mass of irregular lanes, built among ruins, and surmounted by brick towers. The streets were so narrow that two horsemen could with difficulty ride abreast. The rebuilding of the city by Sixtus IV., and the embellishments of his successors, have completely obliterated this town, and that which we now see is a city which can date no further back than the close of the fifteenth century.

2. The destruction of the ancient relics continued till a very late period. Statues of marble were burnt to make lime. One pontiff took down the temple of Hercules, and demolished an ancient bridge, to manufacture cannon balls for the castle of St. Angelo; another stripped the Pantheon of its bronze tiles, to cast cannon for the same fortress.

3. Strange to say, the golden age of Leo X. witnessed the greatest height of this barbaric destruction. In the wars of the Emperor Charles V., Rome was taken and sacked, A. D. 1527, by the Constable of Bourbon, who commanded the imperial troops. For nine months the city was a prey to a barbarous German and Spanish soldiery. The churches and palaces were pillaged; statues and columns were overthrown, and the chambers of the Vatican and the frescoes of Raphael still bear the marks of this calamity.

4. The work of destruction, however, began to cease in the sixteenth century. Paul III., by a bull issued in 1534, made it a capital offence to grind down statues, and he appointed an antiquarian commissary to attend to the preservation of the architectural remains. Yet under the successors of this pontiff, it was customary for sculptors to cut their statues from ancient columns, and many old structures were plundered of their marble to erect palaces.

5. The embellishments of the rising city thus caused many of the old relics to disappear. The last recorded destruction of this kind was the demolition of the Flaminian Arch, in the Corso, by Alexander VII. From 1527 to 1798, Rome was not entered by any hostile army, nor exposed to any political revolution.

6. The popes who have done most for improving and embellishing the city, are Nicolas V., — Paul II., who built the Venetian palace and part of the Corso, — Leo X., who began St. Peter's church, — Gregory XIII., who founded the Roman college, — Sixtus V., who raised most of the obelisks, — Paul V., who built the splendid church of Sta. Maria Maggiore, the Borghese palace, and other structures, — Gregory XV., — Alexander VII., — Clement XI., — Benedict XIV. and lastly, Pius VI., who established that unrivalled repository of antiquities, the Vatican Museum. The French, also, during their occupation of Rome, from 1810 to 1814, contributed materially to the improvement and ornament of the city.

CCXXXV. — 1. What was the Rome of the middle ages? What of Sixtus V.? 2. How were the ancient relics destroyed? 3. Of the age of Leo X.? 4. Paul III.? 5. Alexander VII.? 6. Of the popes who improved the city?

CHAPTER CCXXXVI.

Review.

1. We have now completed our *Account of Ancient Rome*, and *Sketch of Modern Italy*. The former presents to us the most powerful empire of antiquity, and perhaps the grandest subject of contemplation within the whole scope of history.

2. The early history of Rome goes back to a remote date, and the stories of that period which are handed down to us are, no doubt, either entirely fabulous, or so mixed with fable as to be scarcely distinguishable from it. It is probable, however, that they are illustrative of the events and manners of the times, and serve to give us just impressions of the remote ages to which they refer.

3. It would seem, then, that a small band of emigrants settled in the central part of Italy, and founded a city, 753 years before Christ, giving it the name of *Rome*, after their leader, Romulus. The city increased, and in time became the centre of an empire which conquered nearly the whole civilized world.

4. The history of Rome we divide into three periods; the first extending from 753, B. C., to 508, B. C. This is the *Regal Period*; for, during this space of almost two hundred and fifty years, Rome was governed by kings.

5. Tarquin the Proud was the last of these monarchs: after his expulsion, the government was changed for that of a *Republic*. This form continued to the usurpation of Julius Cæsar, who became sole master and ruler of Rome, with its vast domains in Europe, Asia, and Africa, 48, B. C.

6. A period of war and confusion ensued, but Augustus, a nephew of the great Cæsar, prevailed over all competitors, and may be considered as the founder of the Empire, A. D. 34. Thus the Republic lasted nearly five hundred years, and it was during this *second period* that Rome rose to its greatest pitch of power.

7. The *third period* of Roman history extends from the time of Augustus, to the time of Odoacer, 476, A. D.; this was the period of the *Empire*, and occupies a space of more than five hundred years. Thus the history of Ancient Rome, extending from 753, B. C., to 476, A. D., embraces a period of twelve hundred and twenty-nine years.

CCXXXVI.—1. What does the history of ancient Rome present? 2. What of the early history of Rome? 3. What was the origin of Rome? When was Rome founded? Where did Rome get its name? What of the progress of the city of Rome? 4. Into how many periods is the history of Rome divided? What was the government of Rome during the first period? What was the extent of the first period?

☞ Here let the pupil tell some of the principal incidents of the first period.

5. Who was the last of the Roman kings? What change took place in the government of Rome, after Tarquin's expulsion? Who overturned the Roman republic? When did the Roman republic cease? 6. Who may be considered as having established the empire? When did Augustus become emperor? How long did the republic last? When did Rome rise to its greatest pitch of power?

☞ Here let the pupil tell some of the principal incidents of the republican period.

7. When does the third period of Roman history begin and end? What was the extent of the third or imperial period of Roman history? What was the entire extent of the history of Ancient Rome?

☞ Let the pupil here mention some of the most celebrated emperors, giving their dates and characters. The review of the history may be thus made more or less useful, as the teacher may deem advisable.

8. The History of Modern Italy, beginning with Odoacer, A. D. 476 exhibits a series of interesting events, especially during the middle ages, but since the fall of Rome, it has never been united under one government; and though the people may be considered as one nation, they have been always broken into separate and secondary states

CHAPTER CCXXXVII.



Gracchus slain.

Chronological Table.

The following table may be used for reference, or committed to memory, as a means of establishing the outlines of the chronology in the mind.

First, or Regal Period.

B. C.

Foundation of Rome by Romulus,	753	Ancus Martius became king,	638
Death of Numa Pompilius, second king of Rome,	706	Servius Tullius king,	576
		Tarquin the Proud, last king of Rome, expelled,	508

Second, or Republican Period.

Rome becomes a Republic,	508	Pyrrhus makes war on the Romans,	280
Claudius and Servilius consuls,	492	First Punic War,	264
Coriolanus banished,	490	Second Punic War,	218
Laws of the Twelve Tables brought from Greece,	450	Battle of Cannæ,	215
Rome captured and set on fire by the Gauls,	389	Battle of Zama,	201
Curtius leaps from the rock,	362	Hannibal died,	183
		Third Punic War,	149

Carthage conquered and destroyed,	146	Sulla dictator,	80
Greece finally conquered and made a Roman province,	146	Rebellion of Spartacus,	71
Gracchus slain,	122	Conspiracy of Catiline,	62
The Cimbri invade Rome,	110	Cæsar crosses the Rubicon,	49
Social War,	91	Battle of Pharsalia,	48
Civil wars of Marius and Sulla,	87	Death of Cæsar,	44
		Battle of Philippi,	44
		Death of Antony,	34

Third, or Imperial Period.

Augustus emperor,	30	Death of Aurelian,	275
Death of Augustus, . . A. D.	14	Dioclesian emperor,	284
Death of Tiberius,	37	Constantine emperor,	320
Nero becomes emperor,	54	Constantinople built,	330
Galba emperor,	68	Julian the Apostate,	361
Rome captured and destroyed,	72	The empire divided by Valentinian,	364
Death of Vespasian, — Titus his successor,	79	Britain finally separated from the Roman empire,	427
Destruction of Herculaneum and Pompeii,	79	Rome besieged by Alaric,	408
Aurelius emperor,	163	Rome taken and plundered by Genseric,	455
Zenobia taken to Rome as a captive,	270	Odoacer king of Rome,	476

¶ The teacher can make this table the basis of an examination of his pupil, more or less extensive, as he may choose.

*Frederic Barbarossa*

W. G.
E. M.

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